Canadian Education Association
Proceedings of the
convention
1904

L
13
C35
1904

PROCEEDINGS
FIFTH
CONVENTION

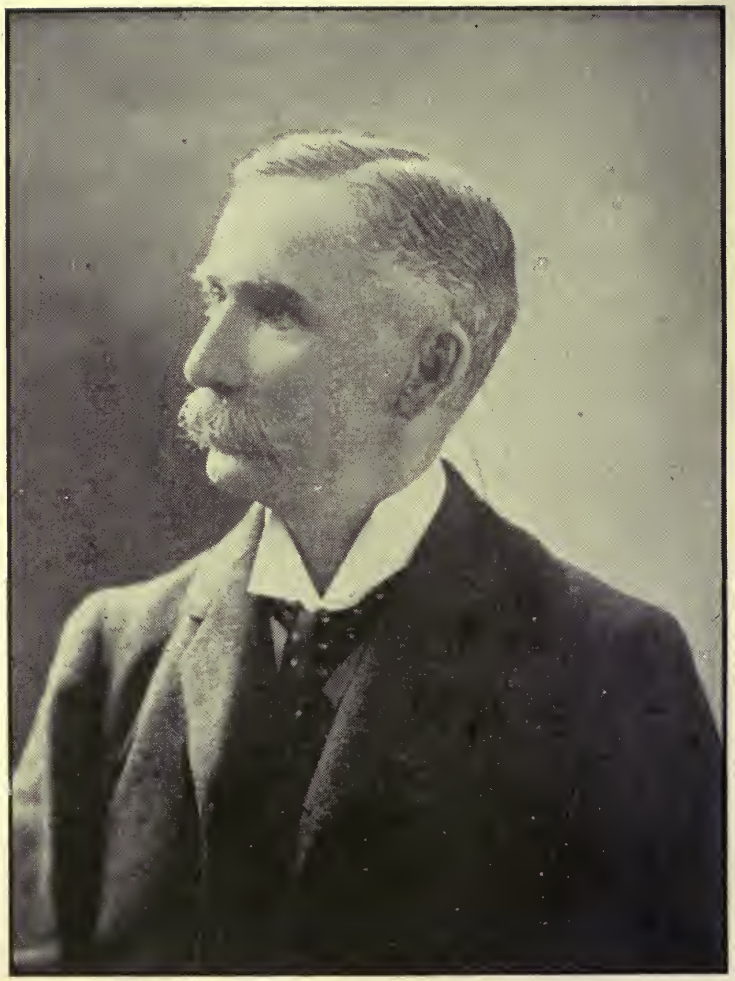
DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Winnipeg
July 26, 27, 28, 29
1904

L
13
C35
1904

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

http://www.archive.org/details/proceedingsofc1904canauoft



D. J. GOGGIN, M.A., D.C.L.

P
Educ
m
Canadian Education Association. 5th
convention, Winnipeg,
1904

THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

THE MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS,

WITH

ADDRESSES AND PAPERS

OF THE

Fifth Convention of the Association

HELD AT

WINNIPEG, JULY 26-29, 1904

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

TORONTO:
MURRAY PRINTING CO., 11-13 JORDAN STREET
1905

9

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

		Pages
CONSTITUTION (ENGLISH)		9
CONSTITUTION (FRENCH)		14
PROGRAMME		19

GENERAL MEETINGS.

MINUTES		23
OFFICERS		29
ADDRESSES:		
Address of Welcome,	Hon. J. H. Agnew	31
Reply,	President D. J. Goggin	34
Some Present Day Problems in Education,	D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L.	36
National Education,	Rev. N. Burwash, S.T.D., LL.D.	43
Tendencies in Education,	S. E. Lang, M.A.	49
Some Commercial Aspects of Education,	W. S. Ellis, M.A., B.Sc.	68
The Administration of Rural Schools,	J. A. Calder, B.A.	78
First Principles in Education,	Rev. Lewis Drummond, S.J.	98
National Religious Education,	Rev. T. B. Kilpatrick, M.A., D.D.	106
Education and Social Progress,	Prof. Geo. H. Locke	113
The Educational System of Ontario—Its Excellencies and its Defects,	John Millar, B.A.	120
Consolidation of Schools in Canada, with Conveyance of Distant Pupils,	A. H. MacKay, LL.D., F.R.S.C.	134

HIGHER EDUCATION.

MINUTES		145
ADDRESSES:		
Plows, Furrows and Harrows,	Prof. A. H. Young, M.A.	147
The High School Curriculum in its relation to the Adolescent,	Geo. Young, B.A.	155
The Rhythmic Structure of English Verse,	Wm. Houston, M.A.	161

INSPECTION AND TRAINING.

Pages

MINUTES 171

ADDRESSES:

The Normal School and its Function of Elimination, J. M. Harper, LL.D. 174

Inspection as a Factor in Public Instruction, G. J. Bryan, M.A. 180

Manual Training in the Macdonald Manual Training Schools . . . . . C. Johanssen 188

Home Education Extension, . A. Fitzpatrick, B.A. 196

Domsie—A Study in Scottish Education, Wm. Scott, B.A. 202

Some Functions of the Normal School, D. Soloan, B.A. 215

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

MINUTES 223

ADDRESSES:

Nature Study in the Winnipeg Schools, . J. B. Wallis 226

Parent and Teacher, . Miss Agnes Deans Cameron 238

A Plea for Systematic School Music in Canada, L. H. J. Minchin 252

Physical Training, ... N. J. Jewett 260

Art in Canadian Schools—What it is, and What it Might be, Miss E. E. Rankin 271

KINDERGARTEN.

MINUTES 283

ADDRESSES:

The Practical Influence of the Kindergarten, Miss M. McIntyre 285

Nature Study in the Kindergarten, . Miss B. Cody 295

The Kindergarten—its place in a Child's Education, Miss V. Aylesworth 303

JOHN MILLAR, B.A.

CONSTITUTION OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the Dominion Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

Sec. 1. It shall consist of seven departments—Elementary Education, Higher Education, Inspection and Training, Kindergarten, Industrial Education, Art Education, Musical Education.

Sec. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

Sec. 1. Any person interested in the work of education shall be eligible for membership and may continue a member by the payment of one dollar at the general meeting or convention. On neglect to pay such fee the membership shall cease.

Sec. 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

Sec. 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a Life Member by paying at once ten dollars.

Article IV.—Officers.

Sec. 1. The officers of the Association shall consist of Honorary Presidents consisting of one from each province or territory represented on the Association, together with Past Presidents of the Association; a President, a vice-President, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer and twelve Directors, together with the presiding officers of the several sections of the Association.

Sec. 2. The Officers of the Association with the exception of the Honorary Presidents shall form the Board of Directors, and as such shall have power to appoint such Committees from their own numbers as they shall deem expedient.

Sec. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered by the meeting, on the third day of the Convention, the majority of votes being necessary for the choice. They shall assume office not later than the first day of January following the convention.

Sec. 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

Sec. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence a Vice-President shall preside, and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

Sec. 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors.

The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

Sec. 7. The Treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Directors shall hold in safe keeping, all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Board, shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, a full statement of which he shall, on retiring from office, submit to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

Sec. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body, shall have in charge the general interests of the Association, and shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings. Upon the written application of ten members of the Association for permission to establish a new department they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as other departments. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

Article V.—Meetings.

Sec. 1. The meetings of the Association shall be held at such times and places as shall be determined by the Board of Directors, provided that not more than three years shall intervene between two general meetings or conventions.

Sec. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of ten members of the Board of Directors.

Sec. 3. Any department of the association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall

appoint, provided that the expense of such meeting shall not be a charge upon the funds of the Association, without the order of the Association.

Sec. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings during the convention.

Sec. 5. Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be held at such other times and places as the Board, or the President with the concurrence of five other members of the Board, shall determine.

Sec. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each Department.

Article VI.—By-Laws.

By-laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

Article VII.—Amendments.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

By-Laws.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.

2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Treasurer all bills approved by the Board of Directors.

3. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in its volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Board of Directors.

CONSTITUTION DE L'ASSOCIATION D'ÉDUCATION DU CANADA.

Article I.—Nom.

Cette Association portera le nom suivant: Association d'Éducation du Dominion du Canada.

Article II.—Départements.

1ère Divis. L'Association comprendra sept départements: l'Élémentaire, l'Éducation Supériéure, l'Inspection et Enseignant, le "Kindergarten," l'Éducation Industrielle, l'Éducation Artistique et l'Éducation Musicale.

2de Divis. On pourra organiser d'autres départements de la manière prescrite par cette Constitution.

Article III.—Affiliation.

1ère Divis. Toute personne intéressée au progès de l'éducation pourra devenir membre de l'association en versant la somme d'un dollar a la réunion générale ou convention; et elle pourra continuer son affiliation en versant la même somme (un dollar), annuellement. Elle cessera d'être membre dès qu'elle négligera de payer cette contribution.

2de Divis. Chaque département pourra prescrire ses propres conditions d'affiliation. Une personne ne pourra être affiliée, cependant, que lorsqu'elle est déjà membre de l'Association générale.

3me Divis. Toute personne éligible a la position de membre pourra devenir membre à vie en payant, une fois pour toutes, la somme de dix dollars.

Article IV.—Officiers.

1ère Divis. Les officiers de cette Association seront: un Président Honoraise pour chaque province et territoire représentés à l'Association, et les Présidents retirés de l'Association; un Président, un Vice-Président, un Secrétaire, un Secrétaire Assistant, un Trésorier, et douze Directeurs et les Présidents des divers départements.

2de Divis. Les Officiers de cette Association, moins les Présidents Honoraires, constiturent le Bureau des Directeurs, et en cette qualité ils auront le pouvoir de former des Comités dont les membres seront choisis parmi eux, selon qu'ils le jugeront à propos.

3me Divis. A moins d'ordre contraire de la part de l'assemblée, les officiers de l'Association seront élus par voie de scrutin, le troisième jour de la réunion; la pluralité des votes décidera le choix. Ils entreront en charge le premier Janvier à dater de la réunion.

4me Divis. Chaque département sera adminstré par un Président, un Vice-Président, un Secrétaire et par tous les officiers jugé nécessaire à l'administration de ses affaires.

5me Divis. Le Président présidera toutes les assemblées de l'Association et celles du Bureau des Directeurs, et accomplira les devoirs appartenant ordinairement à un Président. En son absence un Vice-Président présidera; et en l'absence de tous les Vice-Présidents on nommerra un Président temporaire, après mise aux voix des noms des candidats par le Secrétaire.

6me Divis. Le Secrétaire devra garder un rapport complet et exact des délibérations des assemblées générales de l'Association et de toutes les assemblées du Bureau des Directeurs, et se chargera de toute correspondance qui lui pourra être confiée par les Direc-

teurs, et il devra apporter avec lui ses registres à toutes les réunions de l'Association et du Bureau des Directeurs. Le Secrétaire de chaque département devra accomplir les devoirs appartenant ordinairement à sa charge, et, en outre conserver une liste des noms des membres de son département.

7me Divis. Le Trésorier devra percevoir, d'après les instructions du Bureau des Directeurs, tous les deniers payés à l'Association, les placer en garde sûre, et les employer seulement d'après l'ordre du dit Bureau; il tiendra un compte fidèle de ses recettes et de ses dépenses, il en fournira, au sortir de fonctions, un relevé complet au Bureau des Directeurs. Le Trésorier donnera toutes les garanties que pourra exiger le Bureau des Directeurs concernant le fidèle accomplissement de ses devoirs.

8me Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs aura le pouvoir de remplir les vacances survenant parmi ses propres membres; il soignera les interêts généraux de l'Association, et verra à tous les arrangements nécessaires à ses assemblées. Il pourra décréter l'établissement d'un nouveau département sur demande écrité à cet effet de la part de dix membres de l'Association. Le nouveau département sera revêtu des mêmes droits et privilèges que les autres départements. La formation d'un tel département sera, par le fait même, un amendement suffisant à la constitution à l'effet d'inscrire son nom à l'Article II, et le Secrétaire devra faire les changements nécessaires à ce sujet.

Article V.—Assemblées.

1ère Divis. Les assemblées de l'Association, se tiendront aux jours et lieux que déterminera le Bureau des Directeurs pourvu qu'il ne s'ècoule pas plus de trois ans entre deux assemblées générales.

2de Divis. Sur demande de dix membres du Bureau des Directeurs le Président pourra convoquer des assemblées spéciales.

3me Divis. Tout département de l'Association pourra tenir une assemblée spéciale aux jours et lieux indiqués par ses propres régle-

ments, pourvu que les dépenses de ces assemblées ne soient pas à la charge de l'Association sans un ordre de celle-ci.

4me Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs devra tenir ses assemblées règulières pendant la convention.

5me Divis. La Bureau des Directeurs pourra tenir des assemblées spéciales à des jours et lieux que le Bureau ou le Président pourra déterminer concurremment avec cinq autres membres du Bureau.

6me Divis. Chaque nouveau Bureau devra s'organiser à la session même de son election. À sa première assemblée on devra nommer un comité de publication, formé du Président et du Secrétaire de l'Association de l'année précédente et d'un membre de chaque département.

Article VI.—Réglements.

On pourra adopter, par deux tiers des votes des membres de l'Association, des réglements qui ne seront pas incompatibles avec cette constitution.

Article VII.—Amendements.

On pourra changer ou amender cette constitution à une assemblée regulière ou par le vote unanime des membres présents, ou par les deux tiers des votes des membres présents, pourvu que tel changement ou amendement ait été proposé par écrit à une assemblée regulière précédente.

Réglements.

1. A chaque assemblée regulière de l'Association on devra former un comité pour la nomination des officiers, un pour la nomination des membres honoraires et un pour les résolutions.

2. Le Président et le Secrétaire devront certifier pour le Trésorier tout compte approuvé par le Bureau des Directeurs.

3. Chaque membre de l'Association aura droit à une copie des délibérations.

4. Il ne sera fait lecture d'aucun document, d'aucune conférence ou adresse devant l'Association ou aucun de ses départements en l'absence de son auteur; et l'insertion de tels documents, conférences ou adresses ne se fera pas au Régistre des Délibérations sans le consentement du Bureau des Directeurs.

PROGRAMME.

GENERAL MEETINGS.

President—D. J. Goggin, D.C.L., Toronto.

Secretary—W. A. McIntyre, B.A., Winnipeg.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH—

2.30 p.m. Meeting of Directors in Library, Collegiate Institute.

8 p.m. In Grace Church. Addresses of Welcome—Hon. J. H. Agnew, Winnipeg. Reply by the President, D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L., Toronto.

President's Address.—Present Day Problems in Education.

National Education.—Rev. N. Burwash, S.T.D., LL.D., President Victoria University, Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH—(In Collegiate Institute).

9 a.m. Tendencies in Education.—S. E. Lang, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Virden, Man.

Some Commercial Aspects of Education.—W. S. Ellis, M.A., B.Sc., Principal of Collegiate Institute, Kingston, Ont.

The Administration of Rural Schools.—J. A. Calder, B.A., Deputy Commissioner of Education, Regina, N.W.T.

Appointment of Committees.

8 p.m. In Grace Church. Some Thoughts on Education.—Rev. Lewis Drummond, S.J., St. Boniface College, Manitoba.

National Religious Education.—Rev. Thos. B. Kilpatrick, M.A., D.D., Professor of Theology, Manitoba College, Winnipeg.

Education in its Relation to Social Life.—Prof. Geo. H. Locke, Dean of the School of Education, Chicago University.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH—(In Collegiate Institute).

9 a.m. Excellences and Defects of Ontario Educational System.—John Millar, B.A., Deputy-Minister of Education.

Consolidation of Schools in Nova Scotia.—A. H. MacKay, LL.D., Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.
Business meeting.

8. p.m. Reception at Government House by His Honor Sir Daniel and Lady McMillan.

FRIDAY, JULY 29TH—(In Collegiate Institute).

9 a.m. Receiving and disposing of Resolutions. Election of Officers.
Selection of next place of meeting.
Meeting of new Board of Directors.

HIGHER EDUCATION SECTION.

(All meetings in Collegiate Institute).

President—Professor John Squair, B.A., University of Toronto.
Secretary—G. U. Hay, Ph.B., St. John, N.B.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH—

3 p.m. President's address; organization; appointment of Committees.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH—

2 p.m. The Rhythmical Structure of English Verse.—William Houston, M.A., Toronto.
The American High School.—Prof. Geo. H. Locke, Dean of the School of Education, Chicago University.
The Relation of Geology to the Teaching of Geography.—P. H. Coleman, Ph.D., University of Toronto.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH—

2 p.m. The High School Curriculum in its Relation to the Adolescent.—George Young, B.A., Principal of Schools, Portage la Prairie.
Plows, Furrows and Harrows.—Professor A. H. Young, M.A., Trinity University, Toronto.
Reports of Committees.
Election of Officers.

INSPECTION AND TRAINING SECTION.

(All meetings in Collegiate Institute).

President—Dr. J. M. Harper, Quebec.
Secretary—D. McIntyre, M.A., Winnipeg.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH—

3 p.m. President's address; organization; appointment of Committees.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH—

2 p.m. Inspection as an Agency in Public Education.—G. J. Bryan, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Calgary.

Three Years of Macdonald Manual Training Schools.—C. Johanssen, Director of Manual Training, Montreal.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH—

2 p.m. Home Education—A. Fitzpatrick, M.A., Secretary Home Extension and Reading Camp Association, Toronto.

Domsie—A Study of Scottish Education—Wm. Scott, B.A., Principal Normal School, Toronto, Ont.

Some Functions of a Normal School.—David Soloan, B.A., Principal Provincial Normal School, Truro, N.S.

The Making of a Teacher—a round table conference, led by W. A. McIntyre, B.A., Manitoba Normal School.

Reports of Committees.

Election of Officers.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION SECTION.

(All meetings in Assembly Hall, Somerset School.)

President—Ernest Smith, Westmount.
Secretary—G. M. Ritchie, Toronto.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH—

3 p.m. President's address; organization; appointment of Committees.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH—

2 p.m. Nature Study in City Schools.—J. Wallis, Director of Nature Study in Winnipeg Schools.

Parent and Teacher.—Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, Principal South Park School, Victoria, B.C.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH—

2 p.m. Music in Canadian Schools.—L. H. J. Minchin, Supervisor of Schools, Winnipeg.

Art in Canadian Schools.—Miss E. E. Rankin, Normal School, Regina.

Physical Training in Canadian Schools.—N. J. Jewett, Physical Instructor in Y.M.C.A., Winnipeg.

Reports of Committees.

Election of Officers.

KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

President—Miss M. McIntyre, Toronto.

Secretary—Miss E. Cody, Toronto.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH—(In Free Kindergarten Building, Ellen St.)

3 p.m. Address of welcome from Free Kindergarten Association; President's address; organization; appointment of Committees.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH—(In Somerset School).

2 p.m. The Practical Influence of the Kindergarten.—Miss M. McIntyre, Director of Kindergarten, Toronto Normal School.

Nature Study in the Kindergarten.—Miss B. Cody, Normal School, Toronto.

The Kindergarten—Its Place in a Child's Education.—Miss V. Aylesworth, McKeough School, Chatham, Ont.

The Dominion Educational Association

WINNIPEG, JULY 26th to 29th, 1904

MINUTES—GENERAL MEETINGS.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH, 1904.

According to Programme arranged the Dominion Educational Association met this evening in Grace Church Auditorium. President D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L. in the Chair.

On the platform were Chancellor Burwash, Hon. J. H. Agnew, Dr. Patrick.

Dr. Patrick led in prayer.

Hon. J. H. Agnew extended an address of welcome.

Mrs. Counsell sang a solo.

The President replied to the address of welcome, and followed with an address on "Present Day Problems in Education."

Mr. Robt. Campbell next sang a solo.

Chancellor Burwash, President of Victoria University gave an address on "National Education."

A duet was sung by Mrs. Counsell and Mr. Campbell.

The meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH, 1904.

The Convention re-assembled at 9.30 a.m. in the Assembly Hall of the Collegiate Institute.

The minutes of previous meeting were considered as read.

S. E. Lang, M.A., of Virden, read a paper on "Tendencies in Education." In discussion which followed this paper the following took part: Dr. Burwash, Dr. Goggin, Mr. Houston, Dr. Coleman, Principal Scott, Mr. Millar, Dr. Harper.

J. A. Calder, B.A., of Regina next read a paper on "The Admin-

istration of Rural Schools." This was discussed by Dr. Harper and Mr. J. Millar.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH, 1904.

The Convention re-assembled at 8 o'clock in Grace Church.

Dr. Goggin called upon Rev. Dr. Duval to lead in prayer.

A selection was then played by the Orchestra. Professor Geo. H. Locke, Dean of the School of Education, University of Chicago, gave an address on "Education in its relation to Social Life."

The orchestra gave another selection.

Rev. Dr. Kilpatrick, of Manitoba College, Winnipeg, next gave an address on "National Religious Education."

A selection was given by the orchestra. Rev. Lewis Drummond, of St. Boniface College, Winnipeg, gave an address on "The Importance of First Principles in Education."

After a selection by the orchestra the meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH, 1904.

The Convention re-assembled in the Assembly Hall, Collegiate Institute, at 9.30 a.m.

The minutes of the previous day were read and approved.

The convention expressed its will that if Mr. Ellis' paper can be obtained for the minutes it should be printed.

Mr. Lay of Amherst, N.S., read Dr. MacKay's paper on "The Consolidation of Schools in Nova Scotia." This led to a discussion in which the following took part:—Mr. Moore, Mr. Garratt, Mr. Houston, Principal Scott, Inspector Rothwell, Dr. Harper, Inspector Lang.

J. Millar, B.A., of Toronto, read a paper on "The Ontario School System—its Excellences and Defects."

Hon. Sidney Fisher was then introduced and addressed the convention. On motion of Dr. Burwash and Dr. Stewart a vote of thanks was extended to Mr. Fisher for his presence and address.

Mr. Millar's paper was then discussed by Mr. Houston, Dr.

Goggin, Principal Scott, Inspector Lang, Dr. Harper, Inspector McKee.

A Nominating Committee was then appointed consisting of Prof. Squair, Toronto; Principal Scott, Toronto; R. A. Thompson, Hamilton; E. J. Lay, Amherst; S. E. Lang, Virden; Dr. Harper, Quebec; J. A. Calder, Regina; W. A. McIntyre, Winnipeg.

The meeting then adjourned.

FRIDAY, JULY 29TH, 1904.

The Convention re-assembled in the Assembly Hall of the Somerset School at 10 o'clock. The minutes of previous meeting were taken as read.

The president announced that invitations for next meeting had been received from the University of Toronto and Queen's University, and that he had a message from Dr. Peterson of McGill University regretting that he was unable to attend the present gathering.

Before proceeding to the election of officers Mr. R. A. Thompson moved seconded by Mr. William Scott, that Articles I. and II. of Section IV. of the Constitution be amended to read:

I. The officers of the Association shall consist of Honorary Presidents, consisting of one from each province or territory represented on the Association, together with Past Presidents of the Association; a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer and twelve Directors, together with the presiding officers of the several sections of the Association.

II. The Officers of the Association with the exception of the Honorary Presidents shall form the Board of Directors, and as such shall have power to appoint such Committees from their own numbers as they shall deem expedient.

This was carried unanimously.

The recommendations of the nominating committee were then adopted as follows:

(1) That the next Convention be held in Toronto, providing suitable arrangements can be made.

(2) That the following be officers for the ensuing term:

Honorary Presidents—The Chief Superintendent of Education for the Province of Quebec; the Minister of Education for Ontario;

the Chief Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia; the Chief Superintendent of Education for New Brunswick; the Superintendent of Education for Prince Edward Island; the Head of the Department of Education, Manitoba; the Commissioner of Education for the North-West Territories; the Superintendent of Education for British Columbia; the Past Presidents of the Association.

President—John Millar, B.A., Deputy Minister of Education, Toronto.

Vice-President—W. A. McIntyre, B.A., Principal Provincial Normal School, Winnipeg.

Secretary—D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L., Toronto.

Treasurer—F. H. Schofield, B.A., Principal Collegiate Institute, Winnipeg.

Directors—G. J. Bryan, B.A., Calgary; Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, Victoria; John Squair, B.A., Toronto; Wm. Scott, B.A., Toronto; J. M. Harper, LL.D., Quebec; Superintendent Brydges, St. John; E. J. Lay, M.A., Amherst; J. Robertson, B.A., Charlottetown; Rev. Lewis Drummond, S.J., St. Boniface; Rev. D. M. Gordon, Queen's University, Kingston; Chancellor N. Burwash, Toronto; Supervisor MacKay, Halifax.

(3) That the appointment of Assistant Secretary be left to the President, Vice-President, and Secretary.

It was moved by Mr. Houston, seconded by Mr. Scott and carried: That the Executive be recommended to arrange for the next meeting in two years if at all possible.

The following resolutions were then adopted on motion:

That this Association cordially endorses the work and aims of the Canadian Reading Camp Association, commends the Provincial Governments, railway corporations, employers, churches and individuals that have assisted it; and urges the various Departments of Education to assume fuller responsibility and make some adequate provision for the social well-being and education of the men in the frontier, lumbering, mining and railway construction camps and fishing stations of Canada.

In a country like Canada which recognizes no class distinctions it is the duty of the State to utilize for the general good the various useful faculties possessed by each member of the community, and with this object in view all our high schools should be free, and no imposition of fees should become a barrier in securing the privileges of secondary schools; our Universities also should be so generously supported as not to close their doors to all students who are not children of wealthy parents.

The formation of character should be the chief aim to be kept in view in all

efforts to advance the work of the school. Knowledge and education are not identical. Moral training should form the most important part of the teacher's duties. Instruction in morality should be mainly incidental rather than formal, and the use of a text book for the purpose is secondary in value. The best teacher is the one who is the best disciplinarian, and the personality of the teacher should be the highest desideratum. If better moral training is to be given in our schools this object can be secured only by demanding teachers of high qualifications.

This Association desires to impress upon the attention of Canadians the importance of education as a question which lies at the basis of democratic institutions, and would urge greater liberality of expenditure on the part of Provincial and Municipal authorities in support of Elementary, Secondary and Higher Education. While our country is advancing in material prosperity, it is essential to the growth and stability of our institutions that all classes of citizens should more fully realize the value of the intellectual and moral development of our population.

Patriotism should continue to form a prominent feature of the instruction given in all our schools, and pupils should be trained to have an intelligent appreciation of those advantages which Canadians as citizens of our great empire enjoy. In fostering a love for British institutions, military achievements should not be set forth as the chief factors which have contributed to the grandeur and glory of the nation. Children should be trained in all those habits which promote good citizenship, and taught to realize that the highest examples of courage, self-control and usefulness are not associated with war.

That a committee be appointed by the Executive to collect statistics in connection with the salaries of teachers.

That as an Association we express our appreciation of the liberality of Sir William Macdonald in the cause of education in Canada.

That the Secretary be instructed to send letters to the newspapers of Winnipeg thanking them for the very full reports they have published of the proceedings of the Association.

That the thanks of the Association be given to the Bell Telephone Co. of this city for their great kindness in granting free telephone service to the Association during the progress of the meetings.

That the hearty thanks of the Association be conveyed to His Honor Sir Daniel McMillan and Lady McMillan for their kindness in entertaining the Association.

That the Association thanks the School Board, the teachers, and especially the Superintendent of Schools of the City of Winnipeg, for the pains taken to secure such a representative exhibit of school work; that thanks be also extended to exhibitors from all outside points—the schools of Hamilton, Ontario; McGill Model School, Montreal; McKeough School, Chatham, Ontario; the schools of the North-West Territories; the schools of Russell, Headingly and other Manitoba towns.

That the thanks of the Association be extended to those firms which have

made such a display of school supplies—Steinberger, Hendry Co., Toronto; Russell Lang & Co., Winnipeg; Moyer & Co., Toronto; Cranstons, Winnipeg

That the thanks of the Association be extended to the railway companies for their courtesy in the matter of transportation.

The thanks of the Association were conveyed to the retiring President and Secretary. The meeting closed with the singing of the National Anthem.

LIST OF OFFICERS.

Honorary Presidents :

The Chief Superintendent of Education for the Province of Quebec.
The Minister of Education for Ontario.
The Chief Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia.
The Chief Superintendent of Education for New Brunswick.
The Superintendent of Education for Prince Edward Island.
The Head of the Department of Education, Manitoba.
The Commissioner of Education for the North-West Territories.
The Superintendent of Education for British Columbia.
The Past Presidents of the Association.

President :

John Millar, B.A., Deputy Minister of Education, Toronto.

Vice-President :

W. A. McIntyre, B.A., Principal Normal School, Winnipeg.

Secretary :

D. J. Goggin, D. C. L., Toronto.

Treasurer :

F. H. Schofield, B.A., Principal Collegiate Institute, Winnipeg.

Directors :

G. J. Bryan, B.A., Calgary.
Miss Agnes Deans Cameron, Victoria.
John Squair, B.A., Toronto.
Wm. Scott, B.A., Toronto.
J. M. Harper, LL.D., Quebec.
Superintendent Brydges, St. John.

E. J. Lay, M.A., Amherst.
J. Robertson, B.A., Charlottetown.
Rev. Lewis Drummond, S. J., St. Boniface.
Rev. D. M. Gordon, Queen's University, Kingston.
Chancellor N. Burwash, Toronto.
Supervisor MacKay, Halifax.

ADDRESSES OF THE GENERAL MEETINGS.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. J. H. AGNEW, WINNIPEG,

Acting Minister of Education.

Mr. President, and Members of the Dominion Educational Association.—The pleasant and gratifying duty has been assigned to me of welcoming the members of The Dominion Educational Association at this fourth Convention. You are assembled at the gateway of this wondrous West, in the centre of the Continent, in one of the most talked-of cities in the Empire. We are justly proud of our City and of our Country, and we most heartily welcome you. The latch-string is on the outside, the doors are unlocked, and the keys are lost. You will meet many old friends, and I hope you will make many new ones.

I am commissioned to welcome you officially on behalf of the Government of the Province, because the Government takes very keen and lively interest in the important question of Education. I regret the absence of Honourable Colin H. Campbell, the Minister of Education—a warm friend, and devoted supporter of the cause of Education.

The problem of Education in Manitoba, as in all new and sparsely settled countries, is difficult. The Government is giving, not what it would like, but as much assistance as the limited resources of the province will allow. So far as the Government is concerned it feels that great progress and advancement have been made in the schools in cities and towns. As a proof it is only necessary to witness the exhibit of school-work in The Somerset School. In the rural districts however, there is much to be desired. Assistance has been given in the way of free text-books; but while this is most acceptable, more is needed. Compulsory attendance is a matter

that has been seriously considered, but financial reasons seem for the present to be in the way of its adoption. Consolidation of rural schools, and transportation of scholars has however been decided on as a distinct aid, and in the line of progress and advancement; and a vigorous crusade is being waged by the Department in support of this policy. We hope to materially solve the serious questions of non-attendance, irregularity of attendance, and unqualified teachers, and bring the facilities and advantages of education to a much larger number of our children. The plan is not yet in operation, but it is looked on with favour by the people, and no doubt it will soon be practically tried.

But beyond any official and formal welcome, I can assure you of a general welcome from the citizens of all ranks. Our people recognize the value and the necessity of education. They are prepared to make very considerable sacrifices to secure its benefits and advantages. Therefore as a people we welcome most heartily this very important gathering of the brightest and best minds of the Dominion. Such a Convention as this is national in its aims and aspirations. It welds and binds the educational systems of the various Provinces into one great Confederation, and is broad and wide enough to embrace everything from Kindergarten to University. We are glad to see that so many distinguished in the world of Education have been able to make the necessarily long journey to Winnipeg. There are names on the programme from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in the East, and Victoria, British Columbia, in the West. I do not know about numbers. Mere numbers are unimportant. Numbers can never make your Convention a success. Quality counts before quantity. It is necessary to have the best men and the best women of the country, the *leaders and giants of Education.* I am assured they are here.

This is a country of progress and advancement. "You cannot stop Manitoba," said Sir John A. Macdonald. While you are here we invite you to examine into this progress, and the reasons for it. We ascribe it chiefly to our wheat. It is the foundation of our prosperity. We measure our progress by our annual wheat-crop. Thirty years ago—a moment in the history of a country—the Hudson Bay Company could only buy ten bushels from each settler. Now Winnipeg is described as the Buckle on the Grain Belt—the second largest wheat market in the world; and Western Canada is pointed out as the future granary of the Empire.

Just a few figures:—In 1893, (just ten years ago), there were one million acres under cultivation, and fifteen million bushels of wheat. In 1903 there were two and one-quarter million acres under cultivation, and forty million bushels of wheat; and there are yet twenty million acres fit for wheat. With the average progress in ten years we shall have under cultivation five million acres, and a yield of one hundred million bushels of wheat.

Our educational needs and ideas have progressed in the past, and must progress in the future in the same proportion as our wheat crop.

To the end that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers, it was ordered in all the Puritan colonies that in every Township after the Lord has increased them to the number of fifty souls, the householders shall appoint one to teach all the children to write and read. Now throughout the length and breadth of this Great New Country, and in the Provinces to the East, the means and facilities of education are found. Free and non-sectarian schools are reasonably within the reach *of all*, under the control of, and supported by the Government. But increased efforts must be made, especially in this new and growing land. More money must be given, more people must devote themselves to the profession of teaching. Provinces must reciprocate more and more; and the need and usefulness of such Conventions as this becomes more and more apparent.

Canada is looking forward. The stale and Old World civilizations know nothing of the eagerness or the quivering intensity with which our people face the future. Among all the nations there is none whose welcome to the future is more buoyant, and in no land is citizenship more filled with confident expectancy than in Canada.

In fact, it is good to be a Canadian, to live in Canada, and to have to do with the making of her future. The present time may be more than ever a critical one in our history. The presage of great things is in the air; and upon the decision of the Canadian people largely depends the making or marring of our national and international life.

Viewing as we do the magnificent progress that has been made materially and educationally, is it too much to think that within a comparatively short time, instead of having such a Convention as is met here to-night, we may have one whose objects and interests are founded on Imperial lines!

This is a country of magnificent resources, and of magnificent distances. Within our far-flung boundaries is to be found unlimited wealth of land and sea. Not only is Canada vast in area, but by reason of its almost unlimited resources and its advantageous geographical position it is one of the richest and most attractive countries in the world, holding open the door for the prospective colonist. No misrepresentation of Canadian climate or soil can hold back the tide of prosperity and population that is bound to come, and is even now rising with resistless force.

It is necessary therefore, in view of all these facts, to see to it that we lay broad and deep the educational foundations of our country, so that the future inhabitants may not only be filled with that righteousness which exalteth a nation, but with the knowledge that will protect it and safeguard it through all its history.

On Behalf of the Association Dr. Goggin Responded as Follows:—

Mr. Agnew, Ladies and Gentlemen,—On behalf of the members of our Association let me thank you for your cordial welcome. The Honourable Mr. Haultain, the Premier of the North-West Territories who was to have joined you in the Address of Welcome, regrets his unavoidable absence, and asks me to express his hearty wishes for a successful meeting.

We have followed with interest your statements respecting the progress of education in the West, and the generous financial support given by your governments. We know something about the progressive legislation which has kept you abreast if not ahead of the older Provinces. We have come to see for ourselves this land of promise, to meet with your best men and women in conference, to learn from them all that we can, and to carry away with us something of that vigour, breadth, enthusiasm and faith which characterize the people of the plains—the builders of the newer, greater Canada.

By the terms of The British North America Act the control of education within each Province is vested in the Government of that Province. Accordingly each has worked out its own scheme, fitted presumably to its own needs. Few question the practical wisdom of that plan, and few students of education fail to see that the plan has the defects of its merits. Education within the Province tends

to become parochial in spirit, and narrow in view, while the type of citizen which it is a function of the school to help to build up, should have a national rather than a provincial outlook.

It was mainly because of this that years ago a number of us felt the need of some organization that would bring together in conference the leading educationists of the Provinces, so that those engaged in the same calling should understand each others aims and plans, and by similar, though not necessarily identical methods, aid in the making of a homogeneous citizenship; in the development of a Canadian sentiment, of a national rather than a provincial spirit, and so prepare ourselves "to think imperially."

To-day educators from Halifax to Victoria, representing every grade of work from the Kindergarten to the University, are here to discuss the larger questions of education, to talk over methods by which provincial governments aid the work of the schools, to plan for more effective preparation of teachers, to examine exhibits of pupils' work, to observe school apparatus, appliances, and furnishings, etc. Such work is of service to Canada. Our Association has, since its inception, received encouragement from the Provincial Governments, and a warm welcome from the cities in which it has met—none more hearty than that for which, on its behalf, I thank you to-night.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Some Present Day Problems in Education.

By D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L.

If I were to ask a manufacturer, a farmer, a banker, a clergyman, a member of Parliament, and a University Professor what education means, I should probably receive different answers, conditioned in each case by the view-point of the speaker. The answers would range from a knowledge of the three R's to generous preparation for citizenship, from the acquirement of a certain fund of knowledge to the thorough discipline of the physical and mental powers, from a narrow fitting for the making of a living to a wide preparation for the living of a worthy life. Each answer would have in it some essential in education. The sum of the answers would afford us as encyclopædic a view as a modern course of studies does, and would include not only the work of the teacher but that of the family, the church, the state, the vocation, and society.

Formerly the school was considered but one of many factors in the making of a man, an element but not even the major element in the educational process. To-day it is the popular view to consider the school as the chief, if not the entire factor in education, to ascribe to it powers beyond its possibilities, and to blame it for evils which it does not create and cannot control. Judges from the bench, in sentencing young offenders, have charged the schools with responsibility for much of juvenile crime. A prominent lawyer declared recently that the unruly behaviour of a large number of children at a public meeting was due to a lack of scripture teaching in the schools. Such men ignore the effects of heredity and environment, neglect to take into account the powerful influence of the family and society in educating youth, and try to impose upon one agent the work of many.

No one else in the State is courageous enough, or foolish enough, to undertake such an absurd round of duties as the teacher of to-day does—to be in the field of education, teacher, parent, clergy-

man, physician, artist, and trainer for industries and citizenship. Such an attempt must end in incompleteness if not failure.

The Purpose of the School.

Is the main purpose of the school scholarship, or discipline, or fitting for industrial and commercial life? Is the school to concern itself chiefly with the pupil as an individual, or as an element in the social whole? Is its outlook towards the spiritual or the material? Is it aiming at a marketable product or a vital development? Because much of the prosperity of a nation is dependent upon the efficiency and intelligence of its industrial workers whose preparation must depend to a considerable extent upon the training given in the school, must it give its pupils an insight into the basic operations of fundamental industries? Because the status of the home and of the nation is dependent upon character, intelligence, and civic zeal, must the school give its pupils that special knowledge and training that makes for social effectiveness? What are the limitations of the school? On what is the emphasis to be placed?

We have here, as members of our Association, representatives from all the Canadian provinces, persons with a knowledge of what each province has accomplished in education. Through discussion in our sections, and through personal conference we should be able to arrive at some general conclusion on these questions, and through our members exert a powerful influence in shaping and guiding views on the meaning of education, the function of the school, and the work of the teacher.

When any editor, preacher, merchant, or member of Parliament, with little or no practical acquaintance with teaching, and who may never have devoted even one month's earnest sustained study to the determination of educational problems, deems himself qualified to pronounce, and does pronounce judgments on such matters, and when the public so often accepts such judgments as educational gospel, it behooves such of us as have made teaching the work of our lives to set forth our views, and do our share in moulding educational thought and practice.

More and more it seems to me that the best fruits of a school or college course consist not so much in scholarship as in aim and method and inspiration, not in the abundance of the things the student knows as in the power he has developed to perceive keenly

and clearly, to infer carefully, to imagine vividly, to distinguish between good and evil, to choose the good and pursue it, to appreciate the beautiful in life and literature, and to have that sympathy with man which takes shape in service.

No one should assert that education even in the narrower sense is limited to the school period, or that everything can be learned within the school years. I do not think that the public school pupil of to-day is mentally or physically of larger calibre than the pupil of thirty or forty years ago, yet he is asked to do, in as short a space of time, all that the pupil did then, and more, in the traditional studies. In addition he has to meet the demands of the enthusiast in the various departments of Manual Training, Domestic Science, Civil Government, Nature Study, and I know not how many others that claim place in the enrichment of school courses and extension of school work. Some of us feel more inclined to pity than to envy the pupil of to-day. Many, if not most of us here present, got our Manual Training on the farm, much of our Domestic Science in our mother's kitchens, our Civil Government in the local elections, and our School Garden instruction in the fruit and vegetable gardens at home; and we got this training in an intensely practical, realistic way outside the school. That was reserved for instruction and training in certain subjects and arts just as necessary to-day as then, and none too well done now if we may accept the statements of parents, employers, and school inspectors who still value highly facility, thoroughness, and accuracy in reading, spelling, arithmetic, composition, etc. Is it not time to call a halt, to attempt less in the schools, do it better, and do it leisurely?

Teachers.

But the doing of this work, whether much or little, well or ill, depends upon the teacher, and that brings me to perhaps the most pressing problem in education to-day—the securing and retaining of teachers of the right kind, of men and women mature in mind and body, with a clear comprehension of the nature of their work, of their opportunities, responsibilities and limitations. We do well to erect fine buildings, and equip them with every modern appliance, with every labor-saving device, but behind this machinery stands the motive power—the teacher, stands the man greater than the teacher. Out of him goes forth virtue, from him radiates influences

that shape character, that train for manhood, citizenship and industrialism.

We used to have men and women in charge of our public schools. Now we have boys and girls—mainly girls. From a recent report I learn that the percentage of women teachers is 91 per cent. in Massachusetts, 82 per cent. in Nova Scotia, 74 per cent. in Ontario, 66 per cent. in Manitoba, and 54 per cent. in our Territories. This tendency is on the increase, even in our High Schools. When the School of Pedagogy, (Normal College), was established in Ontario, a large majority of the students were men, now they are women. The Normal School, Toronto, has over forty women students to every man. . I shall not stop here to discuss whether this preponderance of women teachers is a bad thing—as I believe it is—for education. In the elementary classes the average woman does better work than the average man. But boys from twelve years of age upwards need a man's guidance and control to develop them properly. The exceptional woman may do for them what the average man does, the average woman cannot. City School Boards recognize this now, and are employing more men than they did some years ago.

If you seek the reason for the employment of so many young teachers, for the preponderance of women teachers, you will find it an economic one. Men in our Public Schools cannot found a home and maintain a family on the small salaries paid, and so cannot make a life work of teaching. Youths employ it as a stepping stone to professions. Women pursue it as a temporary calling until they enter upon their life work in the home. Here are some significant figures:—

AVERAGE SALARIES PAID YEARLY TO TEACHERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Provinces.	Men.		Women.	
	2nd Class Certificates.	3rd Class Certificates.	2nd Class Certificates.	3rd Class Certificates.
Prince Edward Island.	$236 00	$189 00	$188 00	$144 00
Nova Scotia.....	253 00	188 00	230 00	167 00
New Brunswick.....	291 00	199 00	237 00	186 00
Ontario	465 00	325 00	275 00	225 00
North-West Territories	471 00	375 00	448 00	416 00

I know school districts in Ontario, where, thirty years ago, salaries from $480 to $540 a year were paid to male teachers; in the same districts the salary is to-day $360, yet the people are wealthier now than then. Though the cost of preparation for teaching has doubled in the meantime and the cost of living has increased from twenty-five to thirty-three per cent., salaries have decreased at least twenty-five per cent.

During this period the wages of household servants, masons, carpenters, smiths, policemen, firemen, etc., have advanced steadily. The salaries of the clergy have been increased very considerably. Organization has had much to do with these increases. We know what labor unions have accomplished in this direction. We know that many churches determine the minimum salary a congregation must agree to pay before a clergyman is permitted to accept appointment, assistance being given from a special fund when a parish is unable to raise the stipulated amount. The church and the unions act in the spirit of trusteeship. Has the State done its duty in this respect?

Since the control of education is a function of the State, since governments determine the courses of study in schools, prescribe the duties of teachers, and, from time to time, increase the cost of their preparation, is it not reasonable to ask them to make some effective legislative provision for the more adequate remuneration of those who are the main instruments in carrying on the work of the schools? Failure to remunerate teachers adequately means that the work of teaching will inevitably pass into the hands of second or third rate persons, and will lead to the lowering of the educational status of the nation. It is a problem in finance which the State cannot safely ignore. Ratepayers who have listened to the frequent boasting of some members of our legislative assemblies may perhaps be pardoned for not making distinctions between economy and parsimony, for not seeing more clearly the relation between cheapness and inefficiency in education. Is it not fair to say that the salaries of teachers represent the community's estimate of the value of the schools to the community?

I believe that the low salaries paid to-day in several of our Provinces are due largely to governmental neglect, to a policy of drift, to the false assumption that the individual self-interest of the ratepayer would prove a safe agency for ensuring public service and meeting public necessities.

I find that in the North-West Territories where so many of the people are pioneers, and where the average wealth is considerably less than in some of the older Provinces, the salaries in the sparsely settled rural districts are higher than those paid in any of the eastern provinces. The reason is well understood. There is a definite relation between the salary paid the teacher and the legislative grant given to the school district. Government aid is in proportion to local effort—the more the district pays the more it receives. And until the individual ratepayer has a higher conception of his responsibility for education, and exhibits a corresponding willingness to contribute to its support, legislative grants should not be paid in lump sums, practically regardless of conditions, as in Ontario and Manitoba, but, as in the Territories, with definite relation to those factors that make a successful school. Graded apportionments spur people to make their schools better.

We all profess a belief in the value of education much as we do in sunshine, air, and other inexpensive things. We declare that a teacher to have proper influence on his pupils must have suitable social standing, must be cultured if he is to be an effective means of culture, and a prominent factor in the intellectual life of his district. Yet we know that he cannot maintain such a position on the average salary now paid, nor give his undivided best to teaching while struggling with the task of making a meagre income meet his needs. More is now demanded of the school and of the teacher than ever before, and with the demand should come adequate recompense. The problem is to get people to realize adequately what education means to the individual and to the state in nobler manhood, higher citizenship, and greater industrial productiveness; and to get them to spend money as freely for educational development as for territorial defences. The individual taxpayer, and the state government alike must be led to recognize that in this work of education it is sound policy to spend generously.

"Good Schools" Association.

We need in each province some organization, some association of persons who have clear perceptions of the true ends of education, and of the duties of the home, school, church, society, vocation, and state in connection therewith to lead an aggressive campaign on behalf of better schools. Such a body, through local branches, could bring

the home and the school into more intimate relations, and secure, through general meetings, a better understanding between parents and teachers as to what each may do in the education of the children. This body could obtain the help of the Church and the Press in setting forth the claims of education to generous support.

We have "good roads" associations, and we know what they have accomplished. We have "hospital Sundays" for the advocacy and support of these deserving institutions. The churches have special agents at work all the year in the interests of missions. Our manufacturers have their organizations with paid agents to look after the dissemination of facts and opinions in support of their views, and whenever revision of tariffs or methods of taxation are discussed in Parliament, their lobby is in evidence. Laurier and Borden pass from Province to Province setting forth their views on the political issues of the day, enlightening and inspiring their followers, and leaving the press and the local committees to continue the campaign of instruction and persuasion. To the intelligent, persistent, and enthusiastic services of the skilled travelling instructors of the Guelph Agricultural College is due a large part of the helpful influence that institution now exerts upon the farmers of Ontario. Year after year they have brought to local associations of agriculturalists the knowledge obtained through scientific experiments at the College, and by means of illustrations and discussions they have done very much to increase interest in farming as a scientific as well as profitable vocation. The politician, the party press, associations of business men all realize that persistent, aggressive action in support of their organizations is the price of success.

Is any Government or any organization of citizens in any Province of the Dominion carrying on similar aggressive work on behalf of education? Is there any doubt as to the urgency for such work?

Do we not need in each Province some man with zeal, determination, philosophic insight, and eloquence, to devote himself to the ministry of education, to go among the people and stir up in them a living, active belief in the worth of education as the factor in the development of men and women as well as in the making of dollars and cents? Not till the people truly realize what education means will they spend generously on behalf of their schools. With higher conceptions of the meaning of education and with ampler financial support will come better buildings, better equipment, and above all better teachers and nobler ideals. Is there a better way of solving the problem?

NATIONAL EDUCATION.

CHANCELLOR N. BURWASH.

We are in Canada to-day laying the foundations of a new nation. I do not mean by that that we are preparing for independence or separation from the British Empire. The British nation is now and ever will be a federation of nations. England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, we recognize at once as distinct nationalities. So is India in itself a federation of nations, so is Egypt; and Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand are all moving, each in its own way, towards as definite and distinct a national type as the England, Ireland or Scotland from which they largely spring. This development of nationality requires first of all a physical basis in climate, soil, geographical form and location, and resources for the wants of human life. It is shaped by inherited characteristics derived from the source or sources of its population, bringing with them the characteristics of their origin in other lands. It is influenced by the employment of the inhabitants; the fisher of the sea, the herdsman of the great plains, the farmers of the rich valleys, the miners of the mountains and the manufacturers and merchants of the great cities,—all bring their contribution to the common national life, and are important and essential elements in building the nation. The social manners and customs of a nation are another of its distinctive features, and grow up with and form part of the individuality of its national life. Political institutions again enter largely into and mould this life, more especially in the modern times when politics have become the business as well as the interest of the whole people. And perhaps as profoundly as any of these, religion has given form and character to the life of nations.

In one sense the summing up of all these, and in another the combined result of the influence of all these, gives us what we may call the type of national character. The Scottish national character divided again into two distinct varieties is an instructive example of this. Prudent, industrious, religious, painstaking, and persevering,

there are not many men who will get ahead of Sandy in the world's struggle for life. So with Ireland, brave, cheerful, witty and richly emotional, Patrick is always a warm friend and a delightful companion or a terrible foe. So with the Englishman, strong and self-centred, with mighty, stubborn, patient power of will, he finally conquers the world because he never knows when the world thinks it has has conquered him.

The national character which thus stamps itself upon a people and distinguishes them from all other peoples of the world is the result of varied and slowly working forces, which often through a course of long history work out to their end in the production of a distinct and unified type of men with common laws, institutions, customs, religious beliefs, industries, and above all and out of all—character.

One of the institutions of a nation most intimately related to, growing out of, and in turn powerfully influencing national character, is its system of education for the young. We have not in the world's history too many examples of a single strong type of national education reaching the whole people and influencing them for good or for evil. But our examples are sufficiently numerous and important to convince us fully of the value and significance of the type of education in the life of a nation. The English Universities and the great public schools have stamped their influences upon all the upper classes of the nation, and have wonderfully shaped its history. But only indirectly and in later times have they reached the great masses of the people. On the other hand the schools of Scotland have touched the whole people and have fashioned their minds and thoughts for more than three hundred years, and thus for more than ten generations have been among the most powerful of influences in the formation of national character. In ancient times the Hebrew people were distinguished from all other nations, and to this day their type of national character persists with an almost supernatural energy of heredity which is the wonder and sometimes the despair of modern peoples who utterly fail to assimilate them. And the natural secret of this phenomenon among the nations so far as its results can be traced to natural causes is this—a national ideal of their peculiar mission and destiny in the world and a national training of their children as a separate people for the fulfilment of that destiny. China is another remarkable example of an educational type coming down for two thousand years or more, and creating not

merely a nation, but a race standing out unique in its weakness and its strength before all the world. The national type of education is thus a power for good or for evil which must be reckoned with in the life of a nation.

But perhaps the most eminent example of this power in nation building we have in the nation to the south of us. Three things have contributed to make the United States of America from beginnings like our own a hundred years ago, out of the most heterogeneous materials that the world's history has ever known, a nation not only one of the greatest in population on the face of the globe, but unique in the unity and distinctiveness of its national life and character. These three things have been, the pioneer settler, the pioneer preacher and the red schoolhouse with its Yankee schoolmaster. The pioneer settler, generally a Yankee, set the fashion in building his house, clearing or breaking up his farm and tilling his soil, and in the manner of his social life, and later comers followed him. The pioneer preacher, at first generally a Methodist or Baptist, led the way in type of religious life. And the pioneer schoolmaster, also from New England, instilled into the minds of all the children the intellectual, moral, and political ideas of his native rocky hills and pleasant valleys. Other influences in later times modified these; but these were the universal seed-sowing out of which we have the national harvest of to-day. I do not say that the work has been perfect or that there have been no tares among the wheat, but the results have certainly been astonishing, both in the rapidity of their growth and in the magnitude and thoroughness of their extent. They have made the people one in language, one in general religious sentiment, one in recognition of moral principles, one in political ideals, and one in boast that they are the greatest people on the face of the globe.

Now of the three forces to which I have referred, that of the School house has certainly not been the least powerful, and it has furnished an American type of national education which may be placed along side of that of Scotland or of Germany in the matter of its influence upon the character of the nation, and especially of the masses of the people. What were the characteristics of this American type of education? It was certainly practical and developed a wonderful versatility of mental activity. It made the young American wide-awake. It maintained a good strong backbone of Puritan morality, and it was on the whole religious, though not

as definitely so as that of Scotland or Germany. It glorified smartness, intellectual ability, rather than the solid thorough scholarship of Scotland or Germany, and gave more attention to the showy branches such as declamation. But above all other things it was patriotic, and rightly or wrongly glorified its country as the greatest and best on earth. There was something in this patriotism which made it quite distinct from the love of brown heath and shaggy wood of the Scotchman or the love of Faderland and Muttersprach of the German. It was a type of patriotism peculiarly American. I am not here to criticize this American type or to compare it with others as better or worse, but to make it an example for our learning of what a national type of Education is and what it may do. It is to teach us the supreme value of a type of education in the building of a nation.

Now what is or rather what should be our Canadian type of national Education?

First of all we have to note that the unity of our Canadian type is affected by two facts. (1.) Our systems of Education are as yet Provincial rather than National. And we have not yet developed such unifying forces as the Bureau of Education at Washington or the National Educational Association of the United States. In Germany and Scotland, where National Education has reached its most perfect development the outward organization is with the central Government and the unity of the type does not depend on the inner forces alone. But the inner forces are mighty, and as from New England they moved out over all the Western States, so we believe from Ontario they are moving out over all the Canadian West, and giving us too a distinctive National unity of type.

But our second difficulty in securing true national unity of type is a still more serious one. Our educational forces are directed from two distinct centres—one half from the State, the other from the Church. In Germany and in Scotland, State and Church meet in the State Church. In the United States the same difficulty exists as with ourselves, though in a much less degree.

Now if the solution of this problem depended on unity of outward form we might well despair, for the perpetuity of this two-fold constitution is bound up in the very charter of our country. In the two central provinces of Ontario and Quebec the matter is fixed by constitutional Act. But unity of type of National Education is after all a thing of spiritual attributes and not of statutory forms. And

this higher spiritual unity we can attain by spiritual forces. And to its perfection the very diversity of outward form and of directing forces may contribute a higher degree and new elements. The Church and the State have each their ideal of education. Each embodies a great truth. Perfection will only be reached as these ideals are united. And to our young couutry may yet be assigned the difficult but glorious task of so bringing them together as to reach a higher type than any that the world has yet seen. Our sectarian jealousies may still stand in the way; but let us keep the type ever before us.

What should our National Education be?

1. First and foremost, above all other things it should be pervaded by the moral and religious spirit. This does not mean that it should be sectarian or dogmatic. It does not mean that it should be the study of creeds or catechisms. These are necessary, but their place is in the Church and the Sunday School, and not in the field of national education. But the atmosphere of the School should be that of the fear and love of God, of reverence and piety, and of justice and charity towards man. The one essential to this is the right teacher, I care not whether he be Catholic or Protestant, Episcopalian or Independent, or Baptist, Methodist or Presbyterian, provided he is a high-minded, reverent Christian—one who by his example, his government and his teaching keeps before his pupils the fundamental principles of piety and righteousness. This is not a question of curriculum. It is not something which can be compassed by an hour a week of outside teaching by a clergyman. That has always been a failure and perhaps as well that it is so. But it is a subtle quality pervading the School from the teacher as its centre, with an influence which every wise man will acknowledge to be only for good.

2. Our education should be thorough. This is closely linked with the preceding, for all pretentious superficial education is dishonest. One of the most dangerous tendencies in modern education is that which works for exhibition days and examination results. Cram is the patent recipe for that purpose, and cram gives you neither education nor scholarship, but is destructive of both. The supreme end of the teacher should be that his pupil should master and thoroughly understand his work. What he thoroughly understands he is likely to remember. What he attempts to remember without understanding he will not remember long. What he understands he can reproduce for himself, even if details are forgotten. And

more important still, what he understands he can re-cast into new forms and apply to new conditions suited to the new wants of his life. The highest intellectual power as well as the moral character of the nation are involved in the honest thoroughness of our educational work.

3. Closely allied to this is the principle that our national education should be loyal to the truth. It must be distinguished by the conscientious exactness with which it teaches the truth and only the truth. I shall never forget the day when I entered the chemical laboratory and the superintendent said to me, "I want results to which you can conscientiously make affidavit that they are correct to the best of your belief and knowledge." The teacher must be loyal to the truth. He is building into the mind of the child the facts and principles which he is to use in all the after work of life. It is a crime to substitute for such facts and principles the ignorant conjectures, the crude theories, or the wretched fictions with which a teacher may be tempted to hide his own lack of knowledge. It is no disgrace to a man not to know everything. It is a crime to give out for knowledge that of which we are not certain.

And it is no less important that the scholar should be loyal to the truth. It is one of the most important parts of education to teach him to seek and find the truth or fact for himself. And in this search, industry, honesty and patient perseverance will all be tested and not only mental strength but the highest moral qualities will all be developed.

4. Our national education should be practical. There are necessaries and luxuries in education as there are in food and raiment. Fitness for the common duties of life must be the first goal to be attained in our educational work. There are no people in this country who can afford to be unprepared for the common work of life. If there are a few who think they are above or beyond that necessity, the good of the country and their own good demands that such a fundamental and fatal mistake should be corrected—and that they too should be taught the every-day common things which everybody ought to know. This does not mean that our education should be technical, or that technical subjects should be formally taught. Reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar and composition, physics, chemistry, biology and history, civil politics and ethics supply the knowledge which enters into all life and is needed by every man. But there are two ways of handling all these subjects.

The one is technical, purely scientific and abstract as it is termed. The other is practical, a continuous illustration of principles by their application to every day life. It is this practical tone which I would covet for our national type of education.

5. Lastly, our National Education should be patriotic. It should be throughout instinct with the love of country. By this I do not mean the patriotism of jingoism nor its near relative, the patriotism of the spread eagle orator. But the patriotism of duty, the patriotism which works for the country's good, the patriotism which will deny self, make sacrifices and even give life itself for the country's honour and liberty. We cannot enlarge upon the means by which this noble quality is to be instilled, but its seeds must be implanted in childhood, and in grey hairs it will still be green and flourishing.

With such a type of education what a country is ours? What a future our history may unfold. If we grow slowly yet will we grow surely, safely and strongly, and the twenty-first century will look down upon a nation which may still be young and strong at the end of a thousand years.

TENDENCIES IN EDUCATION.

S. E. Lang, M.A.

Inspector of Schools, Virden, Manitoba.

I.

Weather wisdom is a quality or power highly prized among sailors and politicians. It is also a rare quality, like the gift of prophecy; which in its turn supposes inspiration. Political changes, though confined within certain limits by the boundaries of the national constitution and character, and related to the latter much as weather is related to climate, are not any more easily guessed at than meteorological ones; and educational movements, though determined similarly by social forces, are as hard to foretell as either. No prophetic instinct, however, is necessary in tracing the general movements of our past educational history, and these may of themselves

indicate more or less clearly the direction in which our educational efforts are leading us.

It may be convenient to deal with the problem by taking civilized society in a single view as a very complex organism, working out its own salvation in accordance with certain laws more or less clearly understood. Like other organisms, it is acted on by its environment; and, in reacting thereto, seeks to adjust itself, and to readjust itself to changing conditions. The individuals composing the race ensure the continuance of the struggle for existence by doing for their young in a general way all that the lower animals do, protecting them from danger and looking after physical wants for a certain period, longer or shorter. There is perhaps in the latter case an effort to provide something like training, but this is very largely left to the environment, which furnishes occasion for the exercise of whatever motor ideas have been transmitted through inheritance. In the case of the human recruit there is an additional inheritance of recorded ideas of another kind, the past experiences of the race preserved for future guidance; and, moreover, human society consciously sets itself to the task of training its recruits.

A study of educational progress at large is likely to show a general drift from first crude beginnings towards the employment of a growing number of educational agencies, each with its own special work to do, and along with the multiplication of ways and means, a corresponding movement towards systematic organization and definition of aim for the system as a whole, as well as for each of its inter-dependent parts. When human society was an aggregation of isolated communities there was little recognition of international obligations, or of the possibilities of intelligent co-operation in pursuit of objects of common interest.

Further, the educational progress of any given country corresponds in a general way with what goes on in the world at large. The specifically educational agencies employed in a primitive and nearly homogeneous community are simple in organization and few in number, corresponding to a few very broadly conceived general aims. As the nation grows and division of labour brings into existence new classes in the community, there arises the irrepressible conflict between old ideals and new needs, between vested interests of caste or church, and the claims of parties, groups, and masses hitherto kept back by religious, political or economic disability; and, of course, you always have the conservative pedantry of the

schoolmaster opposed to the raw haste of the social reformer. Then follow compromise and re-adjustment, the elimination of the unnecessary and the unfit, the advent of new agencies with new special aims in view, and the gradual organization of agencies in a more or less completely rounded system.

Again, in the case of any single agency thus employed to do a certain work, there is likely to be friction and waste of power due to failure to fit into its natural place in the larger whole of which it is a part. There may be a gap here, or an excresence or useless survival there. This must be cut off, that filled up. Every new effort in education, in short, must be brought into relation, into coordination with others, and all into due subordination to large considerations of social welfare.

If the foregoing is correct; if the direction of educational endeavour is determined by social needs; if the history of education is the history of the incorporation of new agencies into the educational system, which is thus more or less changed in aim and structure, and which in its turn also modifies the new agency by subordinating it to its own larger ends: then, if we make a cross section of our history at any point, we may expect to find evidences or illustrations of the working of this two-fold movement—the emergence and growth of new agencies in response to social needs, and the gradual incorporation of these in an ever growing and changing structure.

In a community where nature offers few advantages, where the inhabitants cultivate only a few roots and coarse grains, depend largely upon fishing and the chase, and use primitive tools and weapons, the motor activities are constantly called into play in the struggle for existence. In such an environment fine analytic power, keen discrimination and distinction of thought are not to be found, and this for the simple reason that they are not the qualities requisite to ensure survival under the circumstances. Primitive man lives in a society in which things essential to his well-being as well as things hurtful to him are very readily apprehended as a whole, and distinguished from each other. This calls for but a small amount of intellectual effort. What is wanted is a very slight power of sensory discrimination along with a very high degree of motor activity. The primitive man has no time for fine distinctions. He must be able to react, and react very promptly to certain stimuli, or he will be wiped out. Indecision is out of place and exhaustive analysis is a waste of time. To survive he must get his food by strength or stealth,

build and secure his dwelling, and kill his enemy: in short, he must be able to respond promptly to the requirements of the situation as a whole.

In a community on the other hand, where nature is mild and beneficent, where there is an abundance of food and the inhabitants are peaceful,—where in short the struggle for existence is reduced to its minimum, as, for example, among the mild-eyed, melancholy lotos-eaters, it seems likely that sensory activity will flourish and motor activity will decline. If all things in the world were equally interesting, if all facts were equally significant, sensory activity would produce in every one the same result, and mental life would be the same in every one. A race of men without inherited motor tendencies, living in the lotos land, would be a dead level democracy.

Men do, however, inherit motor tendencies, and all things are not equally interesting. The struggle for existence goes on because of the advantage which the possession of certain things brings to the organism. Things are noticed and remembered, not because they lend themselves readily to logical classification, but because we want them or wish to avoid them. Knowledge is sometimes said to be the product of leisure. By this is meant that a primitive people are not given to the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake; for it is not until a certain degree of physical comfort has been attained that a community can afford to support any portion of its population in the serious pursuit of science. Until that stage is reached interest is centred in things immediately and directly related to present welfare, and the type of man required is the man who can do things rather than the man who merely knows about things.

For a considerable period, therefore, you have industrial education only, furnished to the whole population by the very conditions of life. The fisherman takes his sons with him in his boat; other boys learn to manage cattle or to swing an axe; the girls cook and spin. The efforts made by the adult population to raise the young to a position in which they can carry on the struggle successfully will depend in every case upon the stage of economic development that has been attained. The North American Indian exhibits but a very moderate zeal in making use of the treasures of knowledge offered him by the white man. A pioneering community of professors of Sanscrit with professional scholarship and nothing more, any pioneering community of learned people who should carry with them to their new home al their purely intellectual culture and nothing else, would speedily

drop into barbarism for the want of mechanical contrivances and technical skill. They would begin again on another plane the interesting process known as the struggle for existence, and their descendants would be compelled, in order to regain and enjoy the lost estate of their parents, to re-traverse the long and strenuous way of economic progress.

When civilization has reached a stage at which the necessities and comforts of life can be secured with some degree of ease and certainty, progress tends more and more to take the form of a struggle between man and nature, rather than between man and man for what nature offers; the energy that is now set free by better economic conditions being spent increasingly in the development of sensory rather than motor power. Hence-forward the battle is not exclusively to the strong. The strong man will win whose motor abilities are reinforced by keener sensory activity. The mere operative is at an economic disadvantage. The successful type is no longer the man whose motor reactions alone are prompt and vigorous. Science has begun to flourish and knowledge of letters to spread among the more successful members of the community from the top of the social structure downwards. Meanwhile the church, in order to maintain its existence, must train its recruits, and the aim of priestly education is thus distinct and definite: it is to make priests, not learned men—a professional education, not a "liberal" one. The apprentice must serve in the church, read, sing, say prayers, make copies of the sacred writings, receive and bestow alms. Statecraft as well as priestcraft is to be learned under the direction of the church since state administrators in early times are usually priests. The state requires men who know law. The church furnishes this instruction. To serve the state in a great capacity as ambassador or magistrate becomes the ambition of the sons of successful men, lesser men contenting themselves with less.

Now in all this there is the inevitable conditioning law of progress, struggle and competition eliminating the weak, and selecting and favouring the strong. Educational agencies come into play in response to social needs. The training of the fisherman, of the husbandman, of the soldier, magistrate, priest, is in every case due to the need of recruits, these callings being necessary to the preservation of the society in which they take their rise. These features are to be found in progressive societies at every stage of their existence. On the other hand, there is no governmental interference,

no idea of corporate responsibility, almost no organized effort, or recognition of the co-operative principle in meeting a common need.

We may next consider briefly the case of a people somewhat further advanced in wealth and consequently possessed of a considerable stock of energy available for other objects than the mere struggle for a bare existence. Those energies may be employed in making war upon a neighbouring people. In the case of successful war, slave labour may be introduced to replace the free industry of former times. If unsuccessful, the mass of the population may be reduced to slavery under foreign rulers. In either case you have a division of the whole population into two distinct classes, a privileged class and a working class, the former practically exempt from the necessity of toil and frankly exploiting the labour of the latter.

Once having reached this position a nation may be expected to develop a rapidly progressive civilization and an efficient system of schools. Part of the privileged class will embrace the profession of arms; another part will direct the industrial energy of the serfs. The education of the latter will look to physical vigour rather than mental power. On the other hand the fortunate position of the upper classes is favourable to the growth of science and the spread of knowledge of letters. Schools flourish and libraries are formed. There is an increasing demand for mental activity in all walks of life. Success in trading, in the church, in law, in all the now greatly diversified fields of endeavour, depends more and more upon finer discrimination and expert weighing of evidence. When we reflect upon the conditions under which the youth among the free citizens of such military states were trained, we can readily see why the very highest type of individual excellence in the arts and sciences is likely to be produced. Of menial and depressing bodily drudgery there is none; the physical powers are brought to a high degree of perfection by free participation in gymnastic and martial exercises and games; artistic taste and skill are cultivated by the contemplation of the fairest specimens of the work of native and foreign craftsmen; and intellectual power is stimulated to its utmost by intercourse with the finest minds of the age. Macaulay sketches in one of his essays a picture of the educational institutions of Athens in the height of its power, giving his opinion at the same time that in general intelligence the Athenian population surpassed the lower orders of any community that has ever existed. He shows us a crowd "assembled round a portico, gazing with delight at the entablature—for Phidias

is putting up the frieze;" a rhapsodist reciting to a breathless audience the story of Priam begging of Achilles the body of Hector; a debate in which the famous atheist from Ionia is confounded by the pitiless logic of Socrates; Pericles addressing the general assembly; a play of Sophocles; and finally, "away to sup with Aspasia." "I know of no modern University," he concludes emphatically, "which has so excellent a system of education."

Our interest in the educational arrangements of other social systems is due to a desire to find out, if possible, in what way national success or failure is connected with educational practice. The failure of the Greek type of social system cannot be due to lack of excellent intellectual training for those of the community who were brought within the range of its influence. It is held by some indeed that the average Athenian of that time stands in the same relation of intellectual superiority to the modern civilized man as the latter does to the members of the African races. We may be sure, however, that future social experiments will be conducted on other lines than those of the ancient type, since to copy them would be to court their fate. Although built upon what was then thought to be a stable industrial foundation, and although the superstructure compels admiration for many excellent features, that type did not possess as an organic whole the qualities necessary to cope successfully with its rivals, and it went down in the struggle for existence. An enduring type of social system will differ fundamentally in its inner structure.

II.

The extinction of villeinage in England in the fourteenth century marks the end of the first stage in the secular process of growth in which may be seen the distinctive character of modern civilization. Sir Henry Maine has shown that the movement of all progressive society has been uniform in respect of the steady substitution of the individual in the place of the family as the unit of which civil laws take account. Social order and social relations become more and more dependent upon contract between individuals than upon rights and duties which have their origin in the family. There can be little doubt that in the case of modern Western civilization this movement was greatly accelerated by the influence of the Christian religion. Economic conditions no doubt assisted, but the spread of the new altruistic conceptions of Christianity was especially favour-

able to the change. Whatever the cause or causes, certain features of the old system disappeared altogether, or were greatly modified. The relationship of the individual to the state was formerly that of complete subordination. A man's duty was to the state rather than to his fellow man. Women were of course subordinate to men. Slaves were chattels. Children were the property of their parents, and infanticide was a common practice. There does not seem to have existed any idea of moral responsibility or duty to others outside of the privileged community to which the free citizen belonged. Progress beyond a certain point seems to have been impossible, because the energies of so large a portion of the population were hampered by the operation of restrictions set by the dominant class. A free play of forces within the community seems to be necessary to the efficiency of the whole, and this was denied to those nations in which the aggrandizement of the ruling classes proceeded at the expense of the oppressed masses and of subject nations.

In the history of English speaking peoples it is easy to trace the gradual enfranchisement of the lower orders of the people. Concession after concession, granted or gained by force from feudal lords, landlords, and capitalists in turn, has given to the restricted portions of the population the desired opportunities for healthy growth. As we trace the progress of that struggle between the classes and the masses which began with the reaction against the oppressions practised under the system imposed by William the Conqueror and which culminated in the practically complete political enfranchisement of the whole people during the latter part of the nineteenth century, we have before us what is perhaps the most important social development of which history gives any account.

What is the ideal towards which all this growth is leading? Mr. Benjamin Kidd's answer* is that things tend to a condition of society in which every member shall have equality of opportunity in the struggle for existence. Progress depends upon the continuance of this struggle. In that community in which each individual is free to enter the struggle on a condition of equality of opportunity, we shall find the competition most sharp, the rejection of the weaklings and the selection of the fit most sure and rapid, and the consequent progress of the entire social organism and of the individuals composing it most pronounced and permanent. The logic of the situation seems sound enough. If you want to compete with neighbouring

* Social Evolution.

nations with a fair prospect of winning you must look after national efficiency. Nations are made up of individuals and, where participation is hampered or limited by either political or social disability, you may be sure that the best men do not win or that they have not been compelled to put forth their best efforts.

If this answer is the true one we may expect to see "equality of social opportunity" inscribed on the banners of one of the great political parties before a very great while. In the meantime, however, a great deal can be done to make our present educational machinery more effective with regard to those who are legally within the scope of its influence, but who systematically keep out of its way. There are about 800,000 school children in London. The average attendance is 83.7 per cent. Attention might be directed to the remaining 16.3 per cent. There are 50,000 children in that city who are classed as regular irregulars, and probably most communities of five or six millions are in the same plight. It is pointed out in the Report* of the United States Commissioner of Education that at the last presidential election the total vote was 13,961,566, and the plurality of the successful candidate 849,790. The writer says,—"Suppose in such a case that the ignorant voters should all be on one side. What would become of the stability of the republic? According to the census of 1900, 2,326,000 or nearly eleven per cent. of the total voting population of the United States of America were unable to read and write."

A great deal may certainly yet be done in public education before our present machinery reaches its maximum of efficiency, and it is evident also that the ideal of equality of social opportunity for every one will involve very much more than is at present contemplated by our education laws. An individual whose early childhood is passed in the midst of filth, hunger, and vice, and who thereafter spends five or six years in a common school learning to read, write, and cipher, and becoming acquainted with a few facts of geography and history, can hardly be considered as brought into the struggle for existence on a basis of equal social opportunity with his fellows. That seems to be the ideal towards which Anglo-Saxon civilization must in the future direct its energies. Educational effort is bound to move towards it, or rather to continue to move towards it, and does so in response to an all compelling social need.

In no country in the world has political liberty made steadier

* 1902, Vol. I., p. 739.

or surer progress than in Great Britain. It is significant that during the nineteenth century the various extensions of the franchise there were followed by an extension of public education; and now that the orthodox Liberal party in Great Britain seems to have got to the end of its programme, it would not be surprising if Mr. Kidd's forecast should prove correct, since equality of social opportunity seems to be only the logical consequent of complete political enfranchisement.

Reference has been made to the fact that in earlier times there was little or no interference with educational matters by the government. One of the salient features of recent educational progress in England is the growth and operation of this new idea of governmental interference in educational affairs. And the events of last century also furnish an illustration of the tendency towards organization of educational forces in the interests of economy and efficiency.

The idea of government direction and control being foreign to received English notions at first made but slow progress, and operated in a weak and doubtful way. "English public education," says Sidney Webb* "had its origin in rescue work . . . in an attempt to rescue children from the abyss." But, "imperceptibly public opinion gained a new point of view. The leaders of all political parties unconsciously absorbed the idea that national efficiency depended on our making the most of the capacities of the whole population which form after all as truly part of the national resources as iron and coal. Indeed, as we now see with painful clearness, we have in the long run for the maintenance of our pre-eminent industrial position in the world, nothing to depend on except the brains of our people. Public education has therefore insensibly come to be regarded not as a matter of philanthrophy undertaken for the sake of the individual children benefited, but as a matter of national concern undertaken in the interests of the community as a whole."

Let us glance at the steps in the process. It is now a little more than seventy years since the great Reform Bill of 1832. One year later witnessed the first grant of public money for public elementary education. The politicians of that day thought an uninstructed mob with political power was a menace to the safety of the state. Macaulay's speech on Education delivered in 1847 in favour of a grant of £100,000 for the education of the people was in a great part a reply to the contention that such a measure tended to an un-

* 19th Century and After. October, 1903.

due increase in the influence of the Crown, and invaded the functions of Parliament. The point to be decided apparently was whether the measure was consistent with the principle of *laissez-faire*, the principle of non-interference in the affairs of the community as a general thing. The orator appeals to the authority of Adam Smith as entitled to peculiar respect "because he extremely disliked busy prying governments." He appeals to the authority of Jefferson as hating government interference as strongly as he advocated the education of the people. "Education," said John Stuart Mill,* "is one of those things which it is admissible in principle that a government should provide for the people. The case is one to which the reasons of the non-interference principle do not necessarily or universally extend." Three years after the Reform Bill of 1867 an act was passed under which education has been administered ever since. In 1888 a further extension and devolution of political power was followed by new efforts towards educational reform. After some failures and delay, a new Bill has been passed, the famous Education Act of 1902.

Prior to 1870 the policy had been to furnish instruction to the people by fostering the denominational schools. By that time it was clear that that system failed to meet the ever growing demands of public education. The purpose of the bill of 1870, in the words of Mr. Forster, was "to complete the present voluntary system, to fill up gaps." The school boards then created were given power to levy rates, and in this respect had an advantage over the old schools which, though they shared in the grants, were dependent on voluntary support. The rating power was used so freely that before long the voluntary schools were outstripped in the race. Secondary education, too, has been in a bad way. Those secondary schools which have been under the local authority of the County Councils came under the supervision for certain purposes of some nine other bodies, charity commissioners, boards of agriculture, science and art departments, etc., etc. Under such circumstances the best kind of work was impossible. The higher schools established under the authority of the school boards competed with those just spoken of, and of course there was the temptation to bid against each other for pupils by offering cheap and "attractive" courses.

The Education Bill of 1902 gives England for the first time in her history a real educational system. In place of the division of author-

* Principles of Political Economy, Bk. V., Chap. XI., § 8.

ity, and the limited provision for secondary schools, there is now no definition or limit to education as a public function, and "no restriction as to age or sex, quantity, quality or social condition." There has been a union of forces, a concentration of effort, an organization of educational agencies. The local authority has charge of all grades of education for each area; and the theory of an educational ladder from the elementary school to the university is now realized. An immense stride forward has been taken, and this has been achieved by the incorporation of efficient agencies in one system, and the elimination of what is now outgrown, wasteful, and unfit. This great organic change has taken place in obedience, apparently, to the tendency of any advancing organism to readjust itself to changing conditions, a process which results in giving freer play to all its effective members, at the same time subordinating all to a common aim and purpose.

III.

As the political status of any nation probably depends ultimately upon economic efficiency, all those educational institutions which foster productive and commercial activity must be matters of vital concern to the statesman. The best opinion seems to be that the possibility of taking and maintaining a commanding position in international commerce depends not upon military or naval considerations primarily but upon considerations of education. The nation will win in the struggle whose workmen devise and employ the cheapest methods of getting raw materials out of the earth, transform them most cheaply into finished products, and get them to the best market at the least cost. It is not a question of cheap labour performing mechanical tasks. It is a question of employing intelligent workmen to best purpose, of ability to devise new methods when new adjustments are necessary. The community which produces cheaply can do so, not when it can secure cheap labour, but when the individuals composing the community work cheaply. The efficiency of the wage earner is to be measured by his ability to do the best work at the smallest cost to himself, i.e., with the smallest possible expenditure of his bodily and mental powers. The workman whose whole stock of force is expended in the effort to keep up with his fellows in doing a fair day's work, and who therefore has nothing left with which to face his other duties—to his family his neighbours, church, town, etc., is but a weak member of the social

structure. As the total efficiency of all is but the sum of the powers of the individuals, the fewer of that type in a community the better for it. The inefficient members of the social organism are costly. They are cumberers of the ground; and lower by just so much the physical, mental and moral standard—in short, the general efficiency of the whole.

The multiplication of sciences and arts and the insistent demand for instruction therein have led to a very great extension of the courses of study offered by high schools and colleges. This extension was not accomplished without a great deal of friction due to an ingrained belief in the special value for purposes of discipline and culture of the old standard college course and the courses leading to it. "We must jealously guard our universities against the encroachments of new and useful studies" says a recent writer*. "It is not the business of our universities to avert national perils. It is not their business to help the commercial gentleman to fill his pocket. They stand high above the practical pursuits of buying and selling and money getting. Our colleges have most ably discharged their duty if they have given their pupils a brief insight into the humanities and have so trained their brains that they may use them intelligently in the enterprises of life. For this purpose, the so-called dead languages, with mathematics, are the best instruments possible."

On the other hand, we hear the question asked why there is the invidious distinction between the discipline which enables the man to pursue the profession of scientific investigator, and the training which fits him for engineering or commerce. "The only clue to an answer that I have ever been able to get," says Professor Dewey,† "is the assumption of some mysterious difference between a general and a special training. The assumption that a training is good in general just in the degree that it is good for nothing in particular, is one for which it would be difficult to find any adequate philosophic ground. Training, discipline, must finally be measured in terms of application, of availability. To be trained is to be trained for something and for somewhat." "General culture," in the opinion of Professor Hanus,‡ "is the capacity to understand, appreciate, and react upon the resources and problems of modern civilization. To be ignorant

* In Blackwood, February, 1901, p. 264.

† Educational Review, May, 1901.

‡ Educational Aims and Educational Values, Chap. IV.

of these resources and problems is to be out of relation to one's time, that is, to miss general culture."

Meanwhile the President of Chicago University states that the prevailing characteristic of the modern environment of the university is now included under these words,—commercial and technological. Universities are adjusting themselves to this environment, especially those which have been privately endowed. President Eliot has called attention to the altered taste "of benefactors in regard to objects of endowment. Formerly mathematics, divinity, the classics, moral philosophy, and *belles-lettres* largely occupied the thoughts of the rich friends of education. The hopes of the present generation concerning the future progress of civilized man seem to be centred in medicine, architecture, history, economics and government. These are the subjects which most easily enlist the sympathies and interest of benefactors."

The introduction of the various phases of manual training into elementary and high-school programmes is significant, and is doubtless due to a variety of forces. The man of action, the practical man, who is inclined to look at results rather than at methods or theories, has long complained of our too bookish education. He is not satisfied with the product turned out, and has made a steady and insistent demand for ability on the part of boys leaving school to put their knowledge to some practical use, as it is phrased; ability to undertake, to execute, to do, rather than merely to reflect, to reason, to consider; action, not mere contemplation; conduct and efficiency, rather than critical acumen. Again, from a slightly different standpoint, which seems to include national well-being in its view, a considerable and influential section of the people has demanded, in the interests of general economic efficiency, a greater degree of consideration for those courses of instruction which are necessary for the successful craftsman. They hail the manual training movement as an earnest of the maintenance of the struggle for economic supremacy. The pendulum, they say, has swung too far to the side of storing up impressions in the brain. The motor powers have been neglected. What is wanted now is more of the outgoing process, more of that motor activity necessary in industrial life. These demands are reinforced by the psychologists who inform us that the human organism is so constructed that all impressions received from without tend to express themselves in some physical movement, and that manual training is a necessary complement of so much sensory

activity. Reading, reciting, and writing are only a few out of a number of means which the school might employ in conformity with this demand of the organism for motor expression of sensory impression.

In another quarter the movement is welcomed as inaugurating a new era of interest in art. It is believed by some that the true aim of manual training can never be mere skill in the production of useful articles, which after all, as time goes on, must in the great majority of cases be turned out, after a uniform pattern, by machines of enormous capacity of production, but rather artistic skill in making useful things; not mechanical skill in producing an article of bare and unadorned utility, but that skill which makes useful things and makes them beautiful at the same time*. It is often said that we must look for the typical product of modern civilization, not to some stately temple, but rather to an engineering feat, such as a bridge spanning an estuary, or suspended over a mountain gorge; or a railway train, the embodiment of power and speed; or a beautiful machine in a great factory operating noiselessly, accurately and swiftly. The significant feature of the situation in this view is that people to-day seem to demand that these very useful things, bridges, railway trains, machines, tools, shall be as beautifully made as if they were made only to look at and not simply to use. The demand for beautiful things to-day is just as insistent in the case of an axe, a self-binder, or a bicycle, as it was once in the case of a house to worship in: it makes itself felt in every department of industry. This is true, not only in the case of articles of dress and personal adornment, which have an immemorial claim upon the skill of the artist, but also in the case of furniture and utensils whose value has hitherto in a hustling civilization consisted chiefly in their primary utility, intent as we have been in combing down this shaggy country of ours. Art, like knowledge, is a product of leisure. The pioneer settler building his first cabin or shanty in the bush or on the prairie cannot afford to linger lovingly over the execution of pleasing details. We have reached a position to-day when manual training in schools can very powerfully aid in the development of native art.

IV.

Educational reforms, no matter how wisely conceived by closet philosophers, can be carried into effect only by the intelligent co-

* The desire for beauty, with its more potent negative the aversion to ugliness, has, like the sense of right and wrong, the force of a categorical imperative.—Vernon Lee, *Contemporary Review*, September, 1901.

operation of the working teacher. Hostility or ignorance on his part is fatal to progress. Educational tendencies may be guessed at by striking an average between what you read in educational reviews and what you see in the schoolroom of the country. There, as elsewhere, practice loiters lazily after ideals.

The modern elementary teacher is apt to look back with a certain envy to the happy lot of his predecessor whose labours were confined to three or four staple subjects of study. Not very long ago the present bulky programme consisted of reading, writing and arithmetic. The newer subjects, as they were successively added, were opposed and denounced as fads and frills by the educational conservatives of the day. Even at the present time we are inclined to think of all primary school subjects as falling naturally into two classes, the three R's and the others. Indeed you find two considerable classes of educational critics distinguishable on this basis,—the first regarding the three R's as fundamental and the others as accessory; and the second reversing the terms. In the opinion of the former, the only justification of the new subjects is that they furnish recreation in the intervals between the periods devoted to serious study. In this view the true function of the primary school is to put the young in a position to take their places as members of civilized society by furnishing them with the key to the treasure house of knowledge. It teaches reading and writing, a working knowledge of certain symbols which stand for ideas in human records. It teaches arithmetic, and so supplies a labour saving system of shorthand calculation which relieves him of the necessity of counting. The tedium involved in acquiring these arts, school arts, as they have been called, may be relieved, as already said, by various devices, such as the judicious employment of literary, musical and pictorial art, with a small admixture of history and geography. It is frankly recognized that these accessory subjects may in themselves prove not unfruitful of result, seeing that through them one may gather some miscellaneous information; but the serious business of the primary school is held to be the cultivation of certain mechanical arts, reading, writing and ciphering, which will prove useful later on.

The foregoing will be regarded as a fairly correct statement of the theory which governs to a very large extent the methods of examination and inspection of schools. The rough and ready test of the ratepayers generally bears upon the three R's. Present school room conditions, carefully graded classes and fixed courses of study and

limit tables are especially favourable to the masterful teacher who wishes to achieve the success which can be exhibited, measured and marked in accordance with the requirements of this theory.

In radical opposition to all this is the idea that there is a possibility of organic connection between the arts which afford the necessary aids to the getting of knowledge, and certain other instrumentalities bearing upon the child's present needs and nurture; and that the primary school can perform its true function only when it makes the personal development of the child its first and peculiar care, and regards the acquisition of skill in the "school arts" as incidental rather than final. The radical psychological and biological distinction between the child and the adult is held by Professor Dewey to be that the former "is, or ought to be, busy in the formation of a flexible variety of habits whose sole immediate criterion is their relation to full growth, rather than in acquiring certain skills whose value is measured by their reference to specialized technical accomplishments*." This points straight to the conclusion that if school work is not to run counter to natural law, the organic connection between the two types of study is not only possible, but absolutely necessary. If the statement is true, then manual training, literature, nature study, and music should not be regarded as occupying a place on the programme merely on sufferance, or as affording occasional relief from the burden of more serious matters, but as furnishing definite and effective preparation for social duties by ministering to certain imperative spiritual needs.

The latter theory is to be found stated or implied in most of the school journals, and flourishes in normal schools and teachers' meetings. But it is a difficult theory to put into practice, and has failed, up to the present time, to govern educational practice on any very extended scale. The rival theory holds sway in the school room as a general thing, the so-called newer subjects standing in an external, mechanical relation as unassimilated units alongside of the old.

We seem therefore to be just in the midway of a process tending towards organic adjustment of our elementary school programmes. In all such processes specialization precedes co-ordination; and the co-ordination of the newer subjects awaits as yet the action of some integrating force strong enough to cope with certain opinions and conditions in the schoolroom and elsewhere, at present favourable to the continued sway of the older theory.

* Psychology and Social Practice.

Almost coincident with this line of separation is another which divides both professional and lay opinion regarding the relative merits, the moral and intellectual value in education, of two conflicting methods of discipline. One of these opinions is that you must prescribe certain tasks in the school room, and demand of the pupil an exercise of his will power in performing these tasks; that true moral and intellectual power comes only with the strenuous putting forth of effort; that it is only as the habit of doing difficult, unpleasant, unattractive things is formed that anyone can attain to anything like moral and intellectual independence.

Opposed to this you have the theory of pleasure, of making things attractive; and the claim put forward is that with children mental and moral activity responds naturally and readily only when a given set of facts or line of conduct has been made sufficiently attractive to them.

It has frequently been observed that in the controversies which rage about this old and yet ever new question, the contestants spend most of their breath in abuse of the other side, rather than in support of their own. They hurriedly pre-empt all the question-begging epithets in sight, talk vaguely about "good old-fashioned discipline," on the one hand, and about the "needs of the child nature" on the other; and then proceed to exchange sarcastic gibes back and forth. If one is called taskmaster and one's method of discipline drudgery, there is at least the retort that drudgery is better than dissipation; and you can always hold up to public scorn the spoiled child whose food is sugar-coated and whose muscles are flabby. If the exponents of the pleasureable-activity-school remark that a drudge is but a poor sort of mechanical thing anyway, the reply is, that at all events he is not scatterbrained and that he *has* a spinal column.

Since education is a social affair, and educational changes come about in response to social demands, we may expect, in a democratic country like Canada, and particularly in the smaller communities where the actual conduct of each individual school comes closely under the inspection and criticism of the people, that frequent and violent oscillations of public opinion will be felt in the schoolroom and will tend to transfer the emphasis of teaching from one branch to another, and even to affect the character of the discipline and control exercised by the teacher. To-day the people want their schools to be up-to-date; they want more nature study, more music and literature. Next year the teachers are informed that more attention must really

be paid to spelling and arithmetic, and that really a more rigid system of discipline must thereafter be enforced. If, then, we enquire, what tendencies are to be observed in connection with courses of study and discipline in the elementary schools to-day?—the answer is, "oscillation." Departments of education, at the centre of things, have great power and normal schools great influence; but progress is retarded by the rank and file of the teachers, and back of them the ratepaying public which employs them. The working teacher has yet to conceive his programme of studies as an organic whole; and he has yet to see clearly the relation in which the learner stands towards this programme of his. As long as it remains his programme and not the learner's programme, just so long will he remain entangled in the contradictions of the "effort" and "pleasure" theories. Any course of study or course of action stands self-condemned which is so entirely foreign to a child's range of interests as to require either drudgery or strain on the one hand, or an elaborate embroidery of fictions and fooleries on the other.

In our present educational situation, then, a few features seem to stand out prominently. It is recognized that education is a social matter, and that educational institutions and policies shape themselves in accordance with social requirements. Equality of social opportunity, in Mr. Kidd's phrase, is the ideal towards which things seem to tend. The organization of educational agencies under central direction with economy and efficiency in view, the improvement of the machinery, goes on apace. Public opinion in regard to elementary school work and discipline is in an unsettled state; but in both elementary and secondary schools progress has been made towards an organic programme in the readjustment of the relation of sensory and motor activities. The universities furnish us with a striking example of educational response to an imperative social need, in the remarkable increase of departments and courses intended to fit students for a life of industrial and commercial activity.

SOME COMMERCIAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

W. S. Ellis, B.A., B.Sc., Kingston, Ontario,

Principal Collegiate Institute.

I.

I intend to-day to say something on the side of commercialism, utilitarianism, and materialism as related to education; because I am of opinion that these are factors which all effective educational effort will have to reckon with, not as hostile elements, but as strong impulses to intellectual achievement. The age-long struggle of individual, nation, and race against adverse natural conditions is ever developing new aspects of the social order; and the industrial growth of these modern days, with the general distribution of wealth, has an educational bearing that seems to require attention. I am aware, of course, that education, with material results as its aim, will fall far short of developing that aesthetic serenity of mind, and that fine taste in things literary and artistic which many strive for and few attain to, and which is so frequently pointed out as the goal of all mental improvement. Still, that cultivated pleasure and that philosophic outlook upon life come only in small portions, and to few people. Meantime, it is necessary for all to profit as greatly as possible by the agencies for advancement which civilization has placed within their reach. It would be idle to deny that the things that make for a nation's wealth are only in part the things that go to the making of the nation itself, yet that part is important as a point of growth from which may spring clearer conceptions of human progress and greater attainments towards it.

It will scarcely be disputed that it is very desirable to have all the people greatly interested in every phase of school work, and equally it is to be regretted that very many people have little or no interest, of a vital kind, in any legitimate form of school exercise or administration. Education, with us, lacks the strong driving power of a vigorous, alert, public opinion. Yet, without that impulse there

is bound to be a falling off from the best attainable; though any short-coming, either from the highest possible in quantity, or the widest possible in distribution, means loss both to the nation and the individual; a loss, too, that is measured not in money but in human life, for capacity unrealized is life unlived. When one thus finds the people as a whole resting contented with anything less than the best that can be had in educational training, there is reason for enquiring why this most important factor in the making of our civilization is so undervalued; and, it seems to me, that answer might be made after this manner,—the people have been spoken to regarding school work in terms that they do not understand, ideals have been placed before them that they do not comprehend, and inducements have been offered them that they do not recognize as having value; because neither terms of description, nor ideals, nor inducements are within their range of experience. The beauties of the cultured mind, the pleasures of a refined taste, the enjoyments arising from a fertile imagination are not terms to conjure with among people whose predecessors have bequeathed to them no heritage of polish, no tendency toward culture, no mental conditions that instinctively make for refinement, rather than for ancestral states. The opinion has spread widely, however, that the man who is educated has thereby gained a capacity for winning in the race of life. An indication of this is that students no longer go to school and college only from homes of the educated, from literary environments and intellectual coteries where refinement has been ingrained and culture a heritage. Now, from mill and factory, farm and warehouse, men and women crowd to institutions of learning, resolutely seeking educational training, not as an end in itself, but as an agency toward that success which for them and theirs is measured in terms of material prosperity and social advancement. They are thus translating into action the idea that has pervaded the popular mind; and are making it manifest that an impulse which can give rise to educational aspirations that are powerful enough to send students crowding along educational ways is one of the great impelling forces in the transformation of our times. The decrying and disparaging of this power as commercialism and utilitarianism is, at best, doing education a very doubtful service and the country a very undoubtful injury. Ideals that may have been effective in an earlier age and in other countries where class distinctions dominated, fail to stir to action in this democratic community and in these times of productive expansion, because they

are expressed in a phraseology not understood of the people, and picture conditions that lie far outside the experiences of the present generation. For the very reason that schools with us are of the democracy, and that education affects all classes of the community, the incentives must be different from those that availed when only the select few got the benefit of academic training, and when the aim was not qualification for citizenship, but intellectual culture. In these days when so many are carrying the handicap of ignorance that dwarfs human life and effort, when the social system is crowded with misfits, every one of whom bears the curse of Ishmael amid the crowded centres of Christendom, and when the appeal for that educational support which will best develop the ability of every individual for the highest duty that he is capable of, is met only with apathetic indifference, it is surely time to extend the meaning of culture to include adaptation to civilized environment; to teach the doctrine that the first duty of man is to gain the power to earn a decent livelihood for himself and family, and to give this power is the primary function of education. That is the reason why I submit that the appeal to the commercial and utilitarian aspects of the results of education is a perfectly legitimate one to make, when seeking vigorous, enthusiastic endorsement, by a strong popular will, of the work of the schools of all grades from the kindergarten to the university.

We may all hold fast to the doctrine that education has for its object the development of the capacity in human beings for transcending the natural conditions of existence, and for attaining to an ideal that leads ever to higher planes, but the same plane is not for all, and material prosperity has ever been the precursor of enlightenment and refinement.

II.

In the popular mind there is an error, a strange misconception of the function of education, that must be driven out before a proper value will be put upon the work of the school. This error takes for granted that education is for the individual and that the profit is to him alone. This supposition ceased to be true when family and tribe came as stages in race development. As soon as mankind formed themselves into groups, even on the basis of blood relationship, while yet the foray, the chase, and the care of the flock were their only occupations, the degree of expertness reached by warrior,

hunter, and herdsman became a matter of interest and importance to other members of the group. Then, as social relations changed from simple to more complex, as connections grew wider and more interlaced, when trade became a factor in the life of the people, and production of barterable materials passed from the limits of individual supply to meet the requirements of neighbours, it became more and more essential that every member of the community should have qualification for doing his part in carrying on the affairs of the group to which he belonged, whether nation, tribe or family.

The processes involved in the attainment of this facility have always constituted the education of the times. When this made such demands that it could no longer be adequately supplied by the training given by parents and family, a special contrivance grew up to meet the requirements, and the evolution of the school began. This, however, was not to meet individual needs, else laws to compel attendance would not be required, nor would school expenses be legalized into a first charge upon the community. The justification for state administration of schools, for the interference with personal liberty which compels all to avail themselves of educational opportunities, and for the forced contribution to school expenses, rest not on any profit that will accrue to the individual, but upon that which will come to the community by the uplift of its members.

This development in education has taken place because such preparation was required for taking part in the social organization, and because it is necessary to the efficient discharge of the duties of citizenship, in the wide sense of relation to neighbour and institution, as well as to self. While the reception of knowledge and training is personal, the output is communistic in all cases in which it does not degenerate into miserly accumulation of knowledge for mere intellectual gratification.

We are bound, then, to make vigorous opposal to the proposition embodied in the phrase: "Let those who want an education pay for it,"—an expression particularly prevalent with regard to schools of secondary and higher grade. I submit that "those who want an education" may be grouped as the social system in which we live; and that it would be much more in accord with the real conditions if we were to announce that: "The state and society require that every one capable of intellectual and moral advancement shall receive the most perfect education and training possible; and, though this must be imparted to individuals, civilization is dependent upon it

and the community will bear the expense." Neither should it be overlooked that a large part of the child's school life, up to the secondary stage, is spent not in getting educated, but in acquiring the arts and agencies by which an education is obtained, hence the value for school purposes of the years from twelve or thirteen onwards. I think, then, it is not over-stating the case to say that the state is bound for its own preservation and progress to make provision for every child to receive an effective school training up to the end of the sixteenth year of its age; and, on the other hand, to insist that this provision be taken advantage of. Indeed one may fairly question whether any parent should have the right to keep a child of less than sixteen years out of school to do work. The present relation of parent and child in this matter is a survival from earlier times and different conditions, when education consisted of the home training and the state had neither found it necessary to conduct schools nor to provide for attendance at them.

III.

There is another aspect of this relationship between person and community that must not be lost sight of. If there is one right that every man can lay claim to, one privilege that comes to him by virtue of his being human, it is the right to physical existence and to the benefits arising from the use of the powers with which he has been endowed. Yet the conditions of our civilization deprive him of that privilege, deny him that right, unless he conforms to the social requirements that surround him. If a man hunts the beasts of the forest or catches the fish of the river he is prosecuted as a law-breaker; if he builds a hut for his family and cultivates a patch of earth for food he is sent to jail as a trespasser. The earth belongs to the nations and the powers have parcelled out the seas among them, so that the individual has either to become a citizen of some state and live as best he can under its customs, or become an outlaw and die of starvation. Any rights that he had as an independent unit in the human mass, have disappeared because of the civilization he was born into. One does not need to dwell on what this means with the recent striking example of the flow of civilization over the great central plain of this continent, and the hopeless helplessness of the natives, still fresh in mind, when they could no longer withstand the inrush of the new conditions and customs.

Since, then, an artificial system that seems necessary for the pro-

gress of the race has deprived the individual of his natural means of existence, it is surely a just claim that every one has to be put into that position in which he may both gain a livelihood for himself and family, and may live the best and most useful life for himself and others that he is capable of. But quantity of living is a product of two factors, length of years, and efficiency of action. It is the latter element that the processes of education control and indeed produce. It is the most essential element of racial and material development; hence the value of the school to the community; hence the inexorable call for the community to educate its citizens; hence the right, based on human progress, that every individual has to the training which will put him in a position to profit by all that the ages have accumulated for his benefit.

IV.

A question that comes up for some consideration in this connection is that relating to a man's worth. By worth here I am not referring to any merely sentimental value, but to what he counts for as a producing factor in the world. This worth is made up of two elements, one the quantity of marketable material that comes into existence because of this man having lived and worked; the second, the influence that he may have in making the lives of others productive. Before the country realizes the necessity for intelligent effort along educational lines, there will require to be some clear conception of what man as raw material, that is in his natural untrained condition, is worth to the social organization. Then it must be known how, and to what extent, that value may be increased by proper application of these adjustments between the individual and his surroundings which we call education.

There is a certain standard of efficiency that all must reach in order that they may be self-supporting and may not be a detriment to those associated with them. This may be called the neutral line of existence. In the case of such an one the world is none the better materially for his having been in it, nor is he perceptibly the origin of any incentive to effective action in others. I think it is safe to say that every normally developed person who does not reach the positive side of the line just referred to is a wreck of a greater possibility, for which society is largely accountable. Formerly these derelicts in the stream of human progress either became a direct charge upon the community or were weeded out of existence by the

inexorable laws of nature. Even now, we somewhat meekly accept the burden that is passed on from generation to generation without taking proper methods to eliminate the cause of failure, and provide that the coming years shall not carry this load of drifting, wasting lives into the communities that are to be.

The dead line of existence in this age and on this continent lies at about that stage of advancement to which one can attain who has to rely on the training he can pick up from others of his class, by associating with them, but without further educational advantages. Fortunately, the imitative faculty in children and the desire for notice by others have served as incentives to efforts for better standing. But an important fact that has to be dealt with, is that this line of mere existence is moving upward in the scale of efficiency. The man who is dependent on his physical powers alone, who can toil with his hands and do nothing else, is finding it ever harder to get opportunities for labour. Day by day, he is becoming less of a necessity, for his place is being taken by the machine. The energy in a ton of coals is measured by hundreds of days' work of a man; and coal is easier managed and controlled than men are. In our own day we have seen the Anglo-Saxon become too costly material to be worn out on the coarser, heavier construction work. The steam shovel, the mechanical hoist, the air drill, and the serfdom and ignorance of Central and Southern Europe and Eastern Asia have replaced the navvy, the miner, and the hod-carrier of earlier days. Indeed the statement does not seem at all a phantasy that we have well entered on that stage of world growth in which mechanical work will be done by mechanical contrivances driven by the stored water and coal of nature's providing; and that brain, not muscle, will be the essential factor in material production for the future.

Most natural products become more valuable when they have been put through a process of manufacture that adapts them to their several uses, so man's worth is enhanced by the methods of education that fit him for his place and duties in the complexities of modern life. This increased value of the individual to society and to himself depends mainly on two things: (1) Capacity for turning the materials of nature into that condition in which they will be useful to man either to satisfy his necessities or to gratify his pleasures; (2) The power to exert that influence which will incite to constantly higher ideals and will cause progress along lines that make living more perfect. The first of these is entirely dependent on intelligence, and the

second, partly so. Intelligence, though, is largely an outcome of education. Every normal individual has some ability of this kind born with him. That bequeathment from earlier generations is nature's provision against race extinction through unsuitable surroundings. We call it mother wit, natural capacity, inherited genius, and other such things; but it is clearly a very ineffective agent in the world's progress when compared with its own developed form through education. It may be commonplace, but it is worth while to point out here that the man who affirms that education never benefitted him is making a statement that is not anywhere near the truth, though he may never have stood in a school nor be able to read a word or write a letter. What any native of this country owes to education may readily be judged by comparing his position and capacity with those of newly arrived immigrants from Italy and Russia. By whatever the average Canadian workman is better than the Doukhobor in producing capacity, by that much, education has benefitted him materially; because producing capacity is a measure of intelligence and intelligence is the man's inheritance from the training of the past improved by that to which he has himself been subjected, so that it is the result of all educational effort. The Canadian farmer may have had no more actual schooling than the Italian peasant, yet his whole environment and his capacity for living are very different from what they would have been had no educational legacies filtered down through the ages to modify the civilization that generations of ancestors have gradually evolved. This is why no man can truly say that education has not been of service to him. This is why the worth in dollars of every member of a civilized community is increased many fold by facilities for educational attainments when these are rightly administered and properly used.

V.

That term, rightly administered, raises the question of financial support for the schools. It is customary to bewail the meagre outlay for the training of the children, and the little interest taken in that work, but when condition of this kind is prevalent it is generally considered good treatment to seek for the cause, and take measures for rectification of the source of the mischief. Certainly, no good will come from rating people for a shortcoming that they are not conscious of, and whose effects they do not realize.

One great fact that cannot be ignored as a condition of this problem is, that the acquisition and retention of property by individuals and communities is fundamental in the constitution of society, as we know it. Nations take aggressive action, make wars, and conduct intricate diplomatic negotiations to secure lucrative trade relations. Individuals everywhere are busy with endeavours to increase their possessions, and with that alone. The rights of citizenship are largely the rights of property holding. In education then, this almost universal condition can neither be ignored nor reduced to secondary consideration.

It seems to me clear, therefore, that if proper financial support for the schools is to be obtained, and if interest in education is to be aroused, those who are leaders must convince the people that education gives intellectual power, and increased intelligence results in greater productive capacity. I am neither ignoring nor belittling the culture element, but I claim that before it can be effective as a basis of appeal, there must be an audience that has had some of its advantages, and that audience is not often found among the supporters of our public schools. I believe that it would not alone be good policy, but that it is an important duty for which there is urgent need, for every provincial department of education to maintain a staff for the purpose of keeping the public familiar with the relations of education to the economic problems of the country. The great movements of civilization do not arise from parliamentary enactment, indeed are scarcely modified by legislative action, but they have origin and progress in that strong aggressive public sentiment that will not be denied the result for which it calls. Surely the supremest duty of educational authority is to nurture such a sentiment, and to call in the aid of any legitimate agency that will help toward the desired end. A campaign of enlightenment is just as necessary for educational as for political results, and I am inclined to think would be more effective for good of a permanent character.

VI.

Whether or not schools are receiving proper support, whether teachers are being adequately paid, whether the nation is spending sufficient money to secure the training that should be given to children can only be determined by comparison of the amounts thus appropriated with the sums devoted to other purposes. I do not intend now to go into this matter exhaustively, but a few instances may help to focus attention on this part of the subject.

The census gives about 1,200,000 wage earners in the Dominion. If their earning capacity were increased five cents a day the wealth thus produced would pay the cost of all the educational work done in Canada. If we assume that, one with another, wages average one dollar and a half a day for two hundred and fifty days in the year, then about one thirtieth of the earnings of the country is spent on means for educating the children; and if the returns from invested property be taken into account, the fraction is made smaller still. Does eight days earnings per year do justice to educational needs, as compared with other demands upon the taxpayer's income?

A man will insure his life for a thousand dollars and pay thirty dollars a year premium, that he may protect his family from want in case of his death. That thirty dollars is approximately the annual cost for the teaching of three children until they are sixteen years of age. The one thousand dollars will give each of them a return of from seventeen to twenty dollars a year. How does this compare with the increased earning capacity which those children have gained because of their ten years' instruction?

The Dominion pays for education thirteen million dollars a year, and for life insurance premiums eighteen million, five hundred thousand dollars. Which is best expended money?

If I understand the provincial returns, the cost of education per head of population throughout the Dominion is two dollars and forty-five cents a year. How far does two dollars and forty-five cents go towards keeping the people of this country in boots, for instance?

The trade returns tell us that the duties paid to the government on liquor and tobacco is fourteen million dollars a year. This is exclusive of original cost. Now we all know that drinks and cigars are important items in making affairs run smoothly; we have heard, for instance, how they save coal in winter by keeping cold out, and ice in summer by keeping cold in; yet a person of inquiring mind might reasonably ask if a country is being badly overtaxed for education that pays thirteen million dollars for its schools each year, and fourteen millions to the government merely as revenue on material to drink and smoke.

Such figures as these tell their own story, and even the oppressed tax-payer groaning under the educational burdens of the land may appreciate their significance.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

J. A. Calder, B.A., Regina, N.W.T.

(Deputy Commissioner of Education.)

During the past few years a marked interest has been shown in the question of improving the condition of rural schools. Not so very long ago it was merely whispered that these schools were not fulfilling their mission. Since then the whisper has grown into a shout. To-day the belief seems to be general that the rural school is decidedly defective and that if it is to perform its functions as a state institution various radical reforms are necessary. The advocates of reform give voice to their opinions freely and fully. There are not wanting those who believe that "consolidation" is the cure-all for existing ills. Some demand sweeping changes in the course of studies. Nature-study, school-gardening, and manual-training enthusiasts are everywhere in evidence. Then again many believe that the whole problem is wrapped up in the question of better teachers with more adequate remuneration. On all sides are heard rumblings against overcrowded courses, inadequate equipment, child teachers, poor salaries. That there is at least a little fire where there is so much smoke cannot be doubted. It is not my purpose however to discuss the broad general question as to whether or not the rural school is fulfilling its duty; neither do I propose to follow the reformers in their search for a remedy or remedies for the various evils which really exist, or which in many cases are assumed to exist. I wish rather to discuss one phase of the so-called "rural school problem" which is sometimes overlooked and which should have a very distinct bearing on the efficiency of these schools. I refer to the subject of this paper as announced in the programme, namely, "The Administration of Rural Schools."

In dealing with this topic I must admit at the outset that my knowledge of the manner in which rural schools are organized and administered in all parts of Canada, except the North-West Territories, is rather limited, and that such little knowledge as I have has

not been gained through personal observation or experience. I may say further that I fully recognize the fact that the sociological, political, and other conditions, prevailing in different sections of the country, vary to such an extent that it would be impossible to devise any general method of administration that would be applicable to all communities. It may be, however, that in discussing this question we may find there are certain broad principles, which are fundamental, and which should lie at the foundation of every system of rural school administration. If such principles exist and if it is found that rural schools are being administered without regard to them, then it appears to me that it is the duty of legislators and all others, who have control over such matters, to carefully consider the question of amending existing laws and regulations.

For the purposes of convenience I have divided the subject into three parts under the headings, organization, maintenance and administrative machinery, each of which will be considered in turn.

ORGANIZATION.

In all parts of Canada the custom prevails of dividing counties, municipalities, or townships, into school districts. The method of organizing these districts is by no means uniform. In some instances they are formed by the local authorities, such as the County or Municipal Council, in others by a committee or board of commissioners appointed by the government, and in others by the central state authority. In certain of the provinces an incident necessary to the establishment of a new district is a favourable vote of the resident ratepayers affected. In other provinces the law requires that when certain conditions prevail in an unorganized area it shall be formed into a school district, whether the resident ratepayers view the matter favourably or not. Then again it may be noted that there is a marked disparity in the size of districts. While the school laws of the provinces in all cases fix a maximum limit to the area of districts, I am not aware of a minimum limit being fixed by any of them. The natural consequence has been the organization of districts differing widely in area and taxable property.

It is not my intention to consider the advantages and disadvantages of these various systems. No doubt the plan adopted in each province is thought to be the one best suited to its peculiar conditions. I wish rather to refer briefly to the system of organization prevailing in the Territories, and to draw therefrom certain conclusions which may be found applicable to other parts of Canada as well.

In matters of education we have as yet in the Territories a highly centralized system of administration. Between the school district and the Department of Education, presided over by a minister of the Crown, there are no municipal or county councils such as exist in most of the provinces. With us the details of administration, which are usually thrown upon these councils or local organizations, are borne by the Department itself. As regards the organization of districts the law provides that any given area, not exceeding five miles square and containing a certain number of children and resident ratepayers, may be established as a district if the majority of the resident ratepayers by a vote favour its formation. Before the vote is taken the limits or boundaries of the proposed district must be approved by the minister, and when all proceedings are complete it is by his order that the district is proclaimed. Under this system there have been organized in the Territories during the past three and a half years over five hundred new districts, and as it has been my duty during that time to consider every petition, counter-petition, and complaint received, as well as carry on all necessary correspondence relating thereto, I think I may fairly lay claim to a knowledge of the many difficulties which arise in connection with this phase of administrative work. I have also had ample opportunity to learn somewhat of the motives and incentives which influence communities as well as individuals who are interested in the establishment of new districts. These facts are mentioned as I wish it to be understood that the conclusions which I am about to mention are not based on a few isolated instances, but are the result of an experience which, if not extending over many years, has had to do with hundreds of cases. These conclusions are as follows:

(1) The authority to establish school districts and alter their boundaries should be vested in a non-political, or non-elective body or bodies. In numberless cases the question as to the boundaries of a district, an alteration in its limits, or the location of its school site, becomes an issue, which for the time being overshadows every other question. It would be needless to dwell upon the consequences. It is not by any means an uncommon failing of the members of political or elected bodies to do things merely for the sake of securing votes. Often, it is not the question, What should be done? that is considered, but rather, How many votes will be made or lost if so and so be done? Then again, if action is taken at or near the time of an election, the school question in a particular locality may determine the result of

the poll. I have known instances where if the contest had been close the election of a minister of the Crown would have hung in the balance over the question of the location of a school site. This is not as it should be. Those who are entrusted with the formation of school districts should be free to act according to their best judgment. They should not be hampered in any way by a dread of the ballot box. They should be out of reach of the ward politician and the would-be wire-puller. Communities as well as individuals should be led to understand that the questions involved in the formation and re-adjustment of school districts are largely judicial in their nature, and that they must be determined in a spirit of justness and fairness to all parties concerned. This, however, cannot in my opinion be accomplished unless the power to deal with these questions is placed in the hands of a non-political body.

(2) As far as possible the tax-producing wealth of districts should be equalized. In other words districts should be so formed or re-adjusted as to give to each an equal chance to maintain a good school at a reasonable cost to the individual. This is especially true if the present system of throwing the burden of taxation on the school district itself is to be continued. I know from personal experience that the adoption of this principle means trouble. The older and wealthier districts seem to consider that they have certain vested rights. As a rule they resent any suggestion of an interference with their boundaries. It appears to me, however, that the only vested right that exists, and that should be considered, is that which belongs to every child of the state, namely, that he should have an equal chance to acquire an education. This he cannot do if he resides in a "poor" district or a district weak in revenue-producing power. In the West as well as in other parts of Canada many such districts have been formed. Weak, struggling districts have been established in the midst of strong, wealthy ones. Except in outlying, sparsely populated regions these "poor" districts have no right to exist.

(3) The person or persons vested with power to organize districts should be given authority to establish them under certain conditions whether the majority of resident ratepayers view the matter favourably or not. This proposition rests on the principle that it is the duty of the state to see that all the youth of the state are educated. In actual practice this is never done. The state should, however, reserve to itself or delegate to others the right to say whether under certain given conditions a district shall or shall not

be formed. Otherwise the self-interest or lack of interest of a small majority may deprive many a community of a school that is actually required.

In some of the provinces the law provides for the compulsory formation of districts under certain specified conditions of population, area, etc. It is very doubtful if such a plan would be suitable for the West. We have scattered through Manitoba and the Territories many large colonies of foreigners. In some instances these colonies extend over areas varying from fifty square miles to probably two hundred square miles. In the case of the Galicians, the Doukhobors, and certain classes of European Mennonites, it must be recognized that their ways are not our ways; they are unacquainted with our laws, our institutions, our ideals; they are jealous of their own customs, their modes of life, their religion, their language. It would be folly to force upon these people, at the outset, modern Canadian schools. Experience has shown that, after they become settled on the land and have established homes for themselves, they look about and their thoughts are turned into other channels. They cannot help but recognize the wide gulf that separates them from their Canadian brothers. They are not slow to grasp the value of a knowledge of English. The younger generation soon begin to recognize that, if they are to be successful in life, an education must be acquired. The result has been that, without compulsion, a number of these communities have voluntarily taken upon themselves the organization of districts. In the Territories we have at the present time probably thirty schools in Galician settlements, and our inspectors report very favourably upon the brightness and proficiency of the children as well as upon the interest taken in school matters by the parents. The point, however, which I wish to make is this: that the right to establish schools in these as well as in all other communities is one which should be reserved by the state or delegated to the body vested with authority to organize districts. In the Territories this right is reserved to the Commissioner of Education, and I may say that in several instances he has found it necessary to exercise it, greatly to the educational advantage of the communities concerned.

CONSOLIDATION OF DISTRICTS.

Closely connected with the problems of organization is the question of the consolidation of school districts. There is no doubt but that the small rural district with its inferior school house, poor

equipment, and irregular attendance, is a distinct educational loss. In many parts of the United States where consolidation has been carried on to great advantage there exists a condition of affairs which seriously impairs the efficiency of their schools. In most of the eastern and central states where population is comparatively dense there are, or were, as many as from five to ten districts in a single township. This arrangement gives to each district a taxable area varying from four to six sections of land, an area far too small to support an up-to-date school unless burdened with an exorbitant tax. The natural and inevitable consequences have been poorly constructed buildings, inadequate equipment, cheap and inferior teachers, and many other evils. The wonder now is, not that consolidation has been thought of as a remedy for these evils, but that a condition of affairs has been allowed to grow up that makes consolidation necessary.

Those of you who have been watching the press of Western Canada during the past few months have probably noticed that in certain quarters more or less interest is being taken in the question of consolidation as a means of improving our rural schools. I doubt very much, however, if the advocates of consolidation have seriously considered it in all its phases. After carefully studying the question for a number of years in the light of Western conditions the conclusion has been forced upon me that any scheme of consolidation such as has been adopted in the congested regions of the United States is impracticable. We have had in the Territories for nearly ten years statutory provision for the union of districts and the conveyance of children. Some three years ago our Legislature went a step farther and offered liberal support to such districts as would unite for the purpose of maintaining a central school. Although numerous inquiries have reached the Department respecting the matter I do not know of a single instance in which a union of districts has been effected. The reason for this must be apparent to all who are acquainted with Territorial conditions. The smallest of our districts includes an area of about twelve sections of land while the great majority contain from about twenty to twenty-four, and in a few instances as many as thirty sections. In these districts, owing to the large holdings of individual farmers, population is sparse and is likely to remain so for many years to come. This being the case, we have in one sense consolidation at the present time. The maps which I have here will best illustrate what I mean. This small plan is a rough sketch of a

consolidated district in Ohio. It comprises a total area of twenty and a quarter square miles or 12,960 acres. This area a few years ago attempted to maintain nine rural schools. The black dots indicate their location and the red square the site of the central school erected since the districts were united. On an average the revenue of each of these districts was collected from 1,440 acres, their average size. Is it any wonder that this state of affairs has been found intolerable and that consolidation is receiving the hearty support of the school patrons of communities such as is represented by this plan? But when we turn our attention to Western Canada we find an entirely different set of conditions existing. The other plans will give you an idea of what the union of nine rural districts or any less number would mean with us. The districts outlined on the first of these surround the town of Neepawa, while those on the second plan are in the neighbourhood of Moosomin. For comparison's sake I have indicated on each in blue the area of the consolidated district to which I have referred. In the case of the first of these plans the combined area of the nine districts is one hundred and thirty square miles, while the combined area of the districts in the second plan is one hundred and eighty-four square miles. The average area of the districts in the first case is fourteen and a half square miles, and in the second case about twenty and a half square miles. You will remember that in the case of the Ohio union district it comprised a total area of twenty and a quarter square miles.

In considering the practicability of consolidation it must be admitted that this question of area, as well as the distance children are to be transported to school, are important factors. For my own information I wrote some months ago to a number of the Superintendents of Education in the United States for the purpose of ascertaining their views regarding these matters. The questions asked were: (1) In cases where districts have been consolidated in your State, what is the estimated average area of the union district? (2) In your opinion what is the greatest distance pupils can be conveniently transported to a central school? The following are the replies I received from four of the central and northern States whose conditions more nearly resemble our own. To the question respecting area the State Superintendent of Michigan replied, ten to fifteen square miles; of Minnesota, twenty-five square miles; of Iowa, fourteen to twenty-two square miles; and of North Dakota, thirty-six square miles—the average for these four States being in the neigh-

bourhood of twenty-three square miles. To the question respecting distance the State Superintendent of Michigan replied, not more than three miles; of Minnesota, five miles; of Iowa, not more than five miles; and of North Dakota, from six to seven miles—giving an average for the four States of about four and a quarter miles.

From these figures you will readily understand what I mean when I state that, in a sense, we have consolidation at the present time. If the opinions of these gentlemen who have a practical knowledge of the subject, are worth anything, it must be admitted, as I have already said, that any general scheme of consolidation is quite out of the question as a means of improving the rural schools of Western Canada.

There is one phase of the question, however, that will sooner or later force itself on our legislators. As the population of Manitoba and the Territories becomes more dense there will be an ever-increasing demand for smaller districts. During the past few years the Territorial Department has been called upon to deal with many requests of this nature. In order to avoid the evils which have grown up in Eastern Canada and the United States and which have necessitated consolidation, it may be advisable to devise some scheme whereby the comparatively large areas of our school districts may be maintained. A step in this direction was taken by the Territorial Government in 1901 when provision was incorporated in The School Ordinance empowering trustees to provide for the conveyance to the school of children residing within the limits of a district. To prevent the breaking up of districts it may be necessary to go a step farther by providing government grants for such conveyance Under certain restricted conditions trustees might also be required to erect stabling accommodation and incur other expenditures not at present provided for. Unless some action is taken it will not be many years before we shall have in the older settlements in the West a condition of affairs akin to that existing in many parts of Eastern Canada. I would therefore suggest to our "consolidation" advocates that they turn their attention to the problem of devising some plan that will prevent further inroads on our districts as they at present exist. Should these inroads continue I fear we shall hand down to some future generation of educators the task of endeavouring to create a public sentiment in favour of large districts such as we now have.

MAINTENANCE.

By maintenance I mean the provision made for the support of rural schools. If these schools are to be efficient, those who administer them must be provided with the necessary funds. A good modern public school system cannot be maintained except at great public cost. In every highly civilized country in the world the expenditure for education forms one of the most important items of the annual budget. To-day it is recognized that education is a public function that must be provided for, and it is gratifying to note that the tendency in recent years is towards more adequate provision. While this is true, it is doubtful if in all cases the wisest provision has been made for the collection, distribution, and expenditure of school funds. Upon examining the provision made for the maintenance of schools in the different provinces of Canada I find the greatest confusion prevails. Had I time I should like to deal with these in detail, but my purpose will be best served by a general discussion of the subject, with an occasional reference to the provisions made for the maintenance of rural schools in the several provinces.

The two principal sources from which funds for the support of rural schools are derived are taxation and legislative grants. Of these, taxation is and must continue to be the more important. And here may I ask: Why do we impose a public tax for educational purposes? The answer is simple. Public education is a state function. The whole state is responsible for the education of the youth of the state. Some individuals or families are unable to educate themselves. It is to the interest of the community at large to so arrange that an education shall be within easy reach not only of these, but all others. In order therefore to secure the funds necessary to carry out this civil function the state makes provision whereby all the individuals who comprise it shall contribute from their wealth towards the support of schools. If those only who have a direct personal interest in the education of their children were required to contribute, the public school systems of modern times would collapse, as the foundation stones upon which they rest are "public control" and "general taxation."

Assuming then that taxation—public taxation—is a necessity, how shall such tax be levied? What should be the unit of taxation —the province, the county, the municipality, the township, or the

school district? This is an all important question and one that has been answered by our legislators in almost as many different ways as there are provinces. In British Columbia we find that the total cost of rural school education is borne by the provincial treasury, whereas in the little province of Prince Edward Island the school district is the sole unit of taxation. In the one province there is no direct tax for school purposes; in the other the cost of maintaining each rural school must be largely borne by the individuals who reside or own property within its limited area of a few square miles. Between these two extremes various systems of taxation prevail. For example, in Manitoba the municipality consisting of several townships, raises by a uniform tax on all property a fixed statutory amount for each school district within its borders. Ontario has a somewhat similar system except that the tax is levied on the property of the township by the municipal council of each such township. In each of these provinces if the school district requires funds in addition to those arising from the municipal or township levy, as the case may be, such funds are provided by a separate and distinct tax levied on the property comprised within the bounds of the district itself. You will thus see that in the case of the provinces referred to there are four distinct units of taxation, namely, the district, the township, the municipality consisting of several townships, and the province. Is it possible that in each of these cases the system of taxation adopted is the right one? Probably so. But what are the factors that should be taken into consideration in determining how taxes for school purposes shall be levied? Are there not certain broad principles upon which every system of taxation for education should rest? Should not this question be asked and answered satisfactorily before any system of taxation is devised? You will doubtless agree with me that it should. I wish therefore to discuss briefly one or two of the more important features of the question which have appealed to me as being of more than ordinary importance in deciding the sources from which school revenues derived from taxation should come.

In the first place the area or unit of taxation should be such as to fully develop the sound principle that as far as possible the whole wealth of the state shall be made available for the education of all the youth of the state. Education, I repeat, is a civil function, and as such the burden of its cost should as far as is practicable rest on all the members of the community. If the tax-producing

wealth of the country were evenly distributed, or in other words, if all rural school districts contained an equal value of assessable property, there would not be the slightest objection to the district as a taxing unit. We know, however, that wealth is not evenly distributed. Hence the small local taxation units are unable to bear the burden of the ever-increasing cost of schools. Two districts exist side by side, one containing assessable property to the value of $50,000, and the other $100,000. As regards school population they may be on an equal basis. The law lays on each an equal burden so far as maintaining an efficient school is concerned. What are the consequences? The weaker district in order to give its children an equal chance for an education is required to levy double the rate of taxation. Is this just? Is it sound public policy that the individual who happens to live in the poor district shall be required to pay more for the education of his child than his more fortunate neighbour? Should not the wealthier district come to the support of the weaker? Or, should not all wealthier districts or the state do so? These questions I maintain must be answered in the affirmative. But, you will say, if this principle is carried out to its logical conclusion all schools will be maintained directly and entirely by the central state authority. They probably should be were it not for another factor that must not be overlooked. The parents and ratepayers who have a direct personal interest in a school should have an opportunity of contributing directly to its maintenance. It would be a mistake to teach them to look to the state to bear the entire burden of the cost of education. They should be made to depend in due measure upon themselves. Local effort and spirit should not be repressed but stimulated. An interest in the "home" school should be awakened and fostered, and a spirit of rivalry and self-reliance developed. While therefore local taxation, or a tax levied on the school district is desirable, the school district itself should not, in my opinion, be the chief unit of taxation as it is at the present time in the majority of the provinces. It seems to me that the objections to district taxation as the chief source of revenue are unanswerable. Briefly stated they are these: (1) The weaker districts are unable to bear the burden imposed upon them by the maintenance of good schools; (2) These weak districts should not be called upon to pay a higher rate of taxation than strong districts, or, in other words, the burden of the cost of education should be equalized.

What then shall be the chief unit of taxation? This is a question the answer to which must largely depend upon the machinery provided in each of the provinces for local government and which may be made use of for the purpose of collecting and distributing taxes. If the machinery existing is such as to enable the collection of a uniform state tax on all property within the province I am strongly of the opinion that such tax should be levied and paid back directly to the districts irrespective of any special legislative appropriation made for the support of schools. If, on the other hand, a state tax is impracticable then the unit of taxation should be the next largest possible—the county, the municipality, or the township. A tax levied on any one of these units instead of on the school district tends in the right direction, and the larger the unit the more evenly the cost of education is distributed. As to what proportion of such cost should be borne by the state, the county, and the district, I do not propose to express an opinion, other than this, that any tax levied directly on the district should be small in comparison to the revenues received from other sources.

DISTRIBUTION OF TAXES AND GRANTS.

Keeping in mind the fact that the two principal sources of rural school funds are taxes and legislative grants and that the former of these should be collected from the largest possible units, I now wish to refer to the method of distributing these funds to the individual school districts. You will doubtless agree with me that it would be a comparatively easy matter to so distribute them as to defeat almost entirely the object to be gained in levying a tax on large instead of small units. If the proposition is sound that the state and the strong district should be made to assist the weak, then the method of distributing legislative grants as well as taxes should be such as to secure this end. Had I the necessary time at my disposal to analyze in detail the systems of distribution in vogue in the several provinces of Canada, I think I would be able to show that in some of them, little or no regard has been paid to the principle stated. In one of the provinces a fixed lump sum is paid by the state to each district regardless of its ability to maintain a school. In another the distribution of state aid is largely based on population. In others the average attendance of pupils is made one of the chief factors of distribution. In still others the class of certificate which the teacher employed happens to hold, is made the prime basis of

distribution. Now I submit that if you will carefully consider each and all of these methods, and work out the results in a number of concrete cases, you will find that almost invariably the district deserving of the most help receives the least. I am aware of the fact that in certain of the provinces provision has been made for giving special assistance to "poor" districts. I doubt very much however if any such provision meets the point I am contending for. There should be no arbitrary division of districts into *poor* and *wealthy.* Where districts are so classed is there not ample scope for further classification, and should not these sub-classes be taken into consideration in devising methods of paying state aid and distributing taxes? As in every province there must be many grades of schools between the wealthiest and poorest, it seems to me that whatever scheme of distribution is adopted it should, as far as it is practicable, place every district on an equal footing from a financial standpoint. An attempt in this direction has been made by the Government of the North-West Territories. I do not intend to weary you with a description of the plan adopted. Those of you who are interested in the matter will find in our small school exhibit an illustration of the manner in which our system of grants works out. In this illustration, which is a typical instance, you will note that the weaker of the two districts receives by far the larger grant.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY.

Before closing I wish to refer briefly to the administrative machinery or business management of rural school districts. While it must be admitted that many of our district boards have done and are doing admirable work I believe that the time has come when as business organizations they should be abolished. In the mercantile world to-day there appears to be a necessity for extending the operations and control of all governing and managing bodies. The tendency all along the line is towards centralization. The small business concern, for reasons which need not be mentioned here, is fast disappearing. If, then, in the purely business affairs of life it has been found that centralized authority and management are conducive to success is it not possible that the same will hold true of the administration of the affairs of rural districts? Should the forces controlling the business management of these districts be scattered and divided? Should the sphere of activity of the local

educational authority be limited and restricted as at present? I think not.

Under the system now in vogue in most of the provinces, if not all, the population from which trustees are elected is usually small. In a sense the trustees chosen are not representative, and very often they are far from being qualified to perform the duties of their office. In many instances their knowledge of the School Law is most rudimentary, and their ideas of the manner in which the ordinary business transactions of school districts should be conducted are sometimes very crude. There is scarcely one district in five in which school meetings are properly conducted and records properly kept. Countless mistakes are made, many of which may be far reaching in their effects. Public money is squandered, or economy that is almost criminal is exercised. Local influences that often seriously mar the efficiency of the school are set to work. The selection of a teacher is often a family affair. But I need not proceed with a citation of the numerous evils which too often result from the present system. I do not wish it to be understood that I am of the opinion that all rural school boards fail to perform their duties satisfactorily. I know, however, that very many of them do not. But whether so or not I am convinced that the business of school districts can be better managed and more economically conducted, and that better results will be secured if the local educational authority is elected from a larger area than the individual school district, and if its duties and powers are extended over a number of districts instead of one as at present.

When one pauses to consider the many important problems that have to be dealt with by school trustees, and when it is known that their decisions have a marked influence on the standing of their schools, we sometimes wonder that as a class these schools succeed in accomplishing as much as they do. The construction of buildings, the length of the school year, the employment of teachers and officials, the salaries to be paid, the equipment to be provided, the raising of revenue, and a hundred and one other questions must come before them for action. Is it not important that those who are to deal with these questions should as far as is possible be capable business men? And, should they not be free to take a broad view of all such questions? This I submit is impossible if they are elected from the single school district and if their duties are confined to the affairs of such district. Under this system they must in their

official actions be more or less hampered by local conditions or rather local influences. Besides it is extremely doubtful if under the district system of representation we succeed in securing the most capable officials. At any rate there can be no question that if a local educational committee consisting say of five members were elected from an area comprising five school districts the chances are that its members would be better qualified for their duties than the fifteen individuals who are elected and sit as members of five boards under the present system.

What then shall be the administrative unit for rural districts? Should it be the county, the municipality comprising several townships, or the single township? Is it true that the superiority of any one of these as an administrative unit is as great as its superiority as a taxing unit? As the answers to these questions would involve a lengthy discussion and as I have already occupied more time than I should have I must leave these questions with you.

In conclusion I wish to say that I am fully aware of the fact that many if not most of the suggestions which I have made are more or less radical in their nature. Some of my conclusions you will no doubt disagree with entirely. They are conclusions however, which have forced themselves upon me as a result of my experience as a teacher, inspector, and Departmental official, and I give them to you for what they are worth. To those of you who are interested in the improvement of rural school conditions I may say my purpose has been gained if I have succeeded in turning your thoughts into channels other than those usually followed. I know that in the older communities of Canada the provision made for the organization, maintenance and administration of rural schools, has been the result of long years of labour and thought, and that it must be extremely difficult to advocate successfully any reform. In Western Canada our political and local government institutions are not so fixed. Our people are less conservative in their views. We have not had time to become wedded to any idols. It is therefore mainly to the teachers of the West who take an interest in the welfare of the little school that stands out on the open plains that I chiefly appeal for support in advocating the ideas suggested in this paper.

APPENDIX.

Statutory Provision for Payment of Grants in Support of Schools in the North-West Territories.

In Aid of all Schools.

1. In aid of schools organized and conducted under the provisions of The School Ordinance there shall be paid out of any legislative appropriation made for that purpose:

1. To rural districts an amount to be calculated as follows:

(*a*) To each district containing 6,400 acres or less of assessable land as shown by the last revised assessment roll of the district $1.20 per day for each day school is kept open; to each district containing less than 6,400 acres as aforesaid one cent more per day for each 160 acres or fractional part thereof less than 6,400 acres; and to each district containing more than 6,400 acres as aforesaid one cent less per day for each additional 160 acres or fractional part thereof;

(*b*) To each district whose school is kept open more than 160 days in the year 40 cents per day for each additional day not exceeding 50;

(*c*) To each district engaging a teacher who holds a first class professional certificate under the regulations of the department 10 cents per day for each day such teacher is actually employed in the school;

(*d*) To each district whose school maintains a percentage of attendance as set forth in the following schedule the sum set opposite thereto for each day school is kept open:

Schedule.

A percentage of	from	40	to	50	inclusive..	5	cents.
"	"	51	"	60	"	..10	"
"	"	61	"	70	"	..15	"
"	"	71	"	80	"	..20	"
"	"	81	"	100	"	..25	"

2. To village and town districts an amount to be calculated as follows:

(*a*) To each district the sum of 90 cents per day for each day its school is kept open;

(*b*) To each district engaging a teacher who holds a first class professional certificate under the regulations of the department, 10 cents per day for each day such teacher is actually employed in the school;

(*c*) To each district whose school maintains a percentage of attendance as set forth in the following schedule the sum set opposite thereto for each day school is kept open:

Schedule.

A percentage of	from	50	to	60	inclusive	. . 5	cents.
"	"	61	"	70	"	. . 10	"
"	"	71	"	80	"	. . 15	"
"	"	81	"	90	"	. . 20	"
"	"	91	"	100	"	. . 25	"

3. To each district whose school attains a minimum grading on its efficiency in respect to grounds, buildings, equipment, government and progress, a sum not exceeding fifteen cents per day to be paid in proportion to such grading for each day school is kept open; and such grading shall be based upon the inspector's report or reports as prescribed by the regulations of the department;

4. To each town or village district maintaining one or more rooms exclusively for pupils in standards above the fifth the sum of $75 per term provided the daily average attendance of pupils in such room or rooms for any such term classified in accordance with the regulations of the department is at least twenty:

Provided that no grant shall be paid to any district under the provisions of this section unless an average attendance of six is maintained in its school for the term immediately preceding the time when the payment of the grant may be due:

Provided further that the grant payable to any rural district under sub-section (*a*) of clause 1 of this section shall not be less than 90 cents per day for each day the school is kept open:

Provided further that any and every amount payable to any district under this section shall not unless otherwise provided, be payable for more than 210 days in any calendar year:

Provided further that in any district where more than one teacher is employed each room shall rank as a district under the provisions of clauses 1, 2 and 3 of this section when the average attendance of the whole school shall at least equal twenty pupils to each teacher employed:

Provided further that if the sum of the grants payable to any district under clauses 1 or 2 of this section shall exceed 70 per cent. of the salary actually earned by the teacher or teachers employed in the district during the year, the amount of the grant payable at the end of the second term of the year shall be reduced so that the total amount of the grant paid shall equal the said 70 per cent.:

Provided further that payments may be made in respect of the amounts earned under clause 1 or clause 2 of this section at the end of the school terms ending on the thirtieth day of June and the thirty-first day of December in each year on receipt of the returns hereinafter provided and on receipt of the treasurer's bond and teacher's agreement as provided in the School Ordinance:

Provided further that in case the school of any district is open only during a portion of the year payment may be made to such district in respect of the amounts earned under clause 1 or clause 2 of this section as soon as the school closes for the year on receipt of the returns, bonds and agreement mentioned in the next preceding proviso:

Provided further that when the return of the treasurer of any district as hereinafter provided shows that the district is indebted to any teacher or teachers the grant payable to such district under clause 1 or clause 2 of this section or such portion of it to the amount of such indebtedness shall be paid proportionately to such teacher or teachers:

Provided further that the grant earned by any district under clause 4 of this section shall be paid to such district at the end of the school year and in case the school of any district is not inspected during the year the district shall be paid for such year such grant as it may be entitled to upon the basis of the grading its school attains on the first inspection in the following year.

2. The Lieutenant Governor in Council may order the payment of a special grant to any school whether organized according to law or not.

3. For the purpose of estimating the grant which may be earned by any school on account of the attendance of pupils the average

attendance for any calendar month during which the school is kept open shall be calculated by dividing the aggregate days attendance for such month by the number of days school is kept open during such month; the percentage of attendance for any month school is kept open shall be calculated by dividing the average attendance for such month by the number of pupils in actual attendance during such month; and the percentage of attendance for any term shall be calculated by dividing the sum of the monthly percentages of attendance by the number of such monthly percentages of attendance.

4. The board of every district receiving a grant under clause 3 of section 1 hereof shall expend one half of the amount of such grant received in each and every year on the purchase of books for a school library, and such books shall be selected from a list authorized and furnished by the department.

Consolidation of Schools—Grants.

The following are the provisions of The School Ordinance (Sections 165 to 166) respecting the consolidation of schools and the transportation of pupils:

165. Upon a petition hereinafter provided for being transmitted to the commissioner he may empower the board of any rural district to enter into an agreement with any other board or boards for the education of the children of its district upon such terms as may be mutually agreed upon and approved by him, and the board entering into any such agreement shall have full power and authority to make the necessary levy and assessment for the purpose of carrying out the terms of the agreement and for providing for the conveyance of children to and from school under the provisions of The School Assessment Ordinance:

Provided that any such agreement may be terminated by any board a party thereto by giving notice on or before the first day of October in any year, and upon such notice being given the agreement shall cease and determine on the last day of the month of December following.

(2) The petition for permission to enter into such agreement may be in form prescribed by the commissioner, and shall be signed by at least two-thirds of such resident ratepayers of the district as are the parents or guardians of children between the ages of five and sixteen years inclusive.

(3) The statements contained in the petition shall be verified by the affidavit of two of the subscribing petitioners, and the signatures of the ratepayers signing the petition shall be verified by the affidavit of a subscribing witness thereto.

166. The commissioner may, subject to the approval of the Lieutenant Governor in Council, make such regulations as are deemed necessary and expedient for the proper conveyance of children as hereinbefore provided, and for the keeping of proper records of the number of children conveyed, the distance travelled, the cost of conveyance and such other information as may be desired.

In all cases where two or more districts have entered into an agreement for consolidation The School Grants Ordinance (Section 10) provides that there shall be paid at the end of each school term, from and out of moneys appropriated by the Legislative Assembly for school purposes, the following amounts—

1. To every district providing the means of conveyance for children from one district to another the sum of 60 cents per diem for each day upon which such conveyance is provided in accordance with the regulations of the department:

2. To every district agreeing as aforesaid to educate the children of one or more districts the sum of 4 cents per diem for each pupil in average daily attendance who has been conveyed to and from the school house in such district or educated therein in accordance with the regulations of the department:

Provided that the total number of days in each year for which such grants may become payable shall not exceed 210:

Provided further that in case the number of children conveyed from one district to another in accordance with the terms of the agreement falls below an average of six for any term the grant payable under sub-clause 1 of section 10 hereof shall be paid in the proportion that the average number of children conveyed for the term bears to six:

Provided further that the total amount of the grant which shall be payable under sub-clause 2 of section 10 hereof shall not exceed for any term the amount of 40 cents per diem unless it is satisfactorily shown that the presence of such children necessitated the employment of one or more additional teachers in which case the total amount of the grant thus earned shall be paid.

FIRST PRINCIPLES IN EDUCATION.

Rev. Lewis Drummond, S.J.

St. Boniface College, St. Boniface, Manitoba.

The thoughts which I purpose submitting to your kind consideration turn on the importance of First Principles in Education. By "first principles" I mean the fundamental assumptions on which an educator works, the philosophical basis of his efforts. He may not call it his philosophy, but such it undoubtedly is. "No mistake can be greater than to suppose that philosophy is but a mental luxury for the few. An implicit, unconscious, but very real, philosophy possesses the mind and influences the conduct of every peasant. Metaphysical doctrines, sooner or later, filter down from intellectual summits to the lowest social strata, and become, for weal or woe, the very marrow of the bones, first of a school, then of a society, ultimately of a nation." (St. George Mivart.)

If, for instance, we find among a large class of teachers a marked tendency to take up with whatever is new, and, as the phrase goes, "up-to-date" in education, we may be sure that this tendency springs from the unquestioned axiom or first principle that the human intellect is developing from an originally savage state to a future state of unimaginable perfection. Once admit this as a first principle and you are justified in expecting that the newest theories, provided they meet with a pretty general acceptance from those of our contemporaries whom popular rumour stamps as experts, are very likely the best. But, to every independent thinker will occur the previous question, "Is this principle based on fact?" "Is there in history any instance of a savage race becoming civilized and cultured by its own unaided impetus towards perfection?"

On the other hand, does not recent experience show how arduous and how seldom permanently effectual is the process, even when applied by highly civilized and devoted teachers, of civilizing the savage?

Does history prove that the natural impetus towards perfection

produces in fact anything like progressive development of the higher powers of the mind? On the contrary, do not the open records of the human race describe periods of great intellectual development in the fine arts, literature and philosophy followed by other periods of marked intellectual inferiority? Does not the history of every known nation, if sufficiently prolonged, present epochs of growth, either rapid or gradual, culminating in an age of comparative splendour, followed by decay?

The answer to these questions is obvious to the educator who studies the past. Steeped as he is in the traditions of bygone ages, he is fully armed against the enticements of attractive novelties. He first inquires if they are really as new as they pretend to be, and in nine cases out of ten he finds, as the Wise Man did 3,000 years ago, that, in the higher regions of mentality, "there is nothing new under the sun." He is thus happily saved from that waste of energy that issues in the discovery of secrets never lost, an operation which a witty Frenchman styled "discovering the Mediterranean." He feels immeasurable pity for those who at the beginning and throughout the whole course of their pedagogical career are handicapped by a profound ignorance of the masterpieces of antiquity. They have no real personal acquaintance with the philosophical acumen of Plato and Aristotle, the resistless militant logic of Demosthenes, the luxuriant eloquence of Cicero, the terse wisdom of Horace and Tacitus, the startling antitheses of Augustine, the luminous intuitions of Aquinas, the melodious rhythm of that Mantuan poet whom Tennyson styled "wielder of the stateliest measure ever moulded by the lips of man."

Having only the vaguest general information about these deathless monuments of genius in the remote past, the up-to-date pedagogue despises what he does not understand; he has *that half-knowledge* which is worse than mere ignorance, since it adds to ignorance the presumption of the fool. And the mischief is that in some countries the leaders of pedagogic movements are almost all drawn from that shallow class. Being shallow, they are easily dazzled by the mechanical inventions and scientific discoveries of our day, and they forget that none of these discoveries approach in value or importance the simplest and most elementary of necessary truths, for example, the necessity of a First Cause.

In all other trades and professions no man attempts to be a teacher unless he has first assimilated the collective wisdom of the

ages; no builder of steam engines rejects past principles of his craft unless they have been proved wrong; at least he makes sure that he has tried them all before he adopts new ones, else he will have his fellow craftsmen twit him with ignorance of first principles. But pedagogy of a certain fashionable type dispenses with all such precautions. It rushes in where angels fear to tread. It inaugurates some new fad on the bare word of some plausible promoter who has a pecuniary interest in the success of that fad. It experiments upon the plastic minds of innocent children. Instead of developing the latent powers of the child's mind, which ought to be one of the chief aims of education, this type of teacher wants to cram it with ill digested erudition. "Give the pupil facts, broad information, varied instruction," is his watchword.

Meanwhile, the students of history, the heirs of all the ages look on, with a commiserating shrug, at the working out of this first principle, that the newest is the best. They observe that an unmeaning profusion of subjects distracts and enfeebles the mind, that in proportion as information becomes more widespread and varied it also becomes more superficial and inaccurate, that the average school graduates of to-day read and write—as to penmanship, spelling and grammar—not nearly so well as their grandfathers and grandmothers did. This is no matter of surprise to the truly learned who fail to detect in the last hundred years as many examples of lofty human genius as are noted in the seventeenth and thirteenth centuries of our era and in the fourth and fifth centuries before Christ. They have noticed, with Thomas Carlyle, that "intellect did not awaken for the first time yesterday, but has been under way from Noah's flood downwards; greatly her best progress, moreover, was in the old times, when she said nothing about it." In the eyes of men who can interpret the past in terms of the present, what is new in intellectual matters is very likely NOT TRUE, for there have been acute thinkers in all ages; and conversely, what is true will generally be found to have been thought of long ago, and the newness of its appearance will turn out to be due to the ignorance of recent generations. Therefore it is that they see no signs of the indefinite development of the human intellect on fundamental questions, though they readily admit that practical applications and methods may improve. Now education is one of the most fundamental of all questions and must, consequently, have occupied the thoughts of men from the very beginning. And in point of

fact so it has. Thinkers of the past soon came to distinguish instruction from education; the former they felt to be the work of all one's life, the latter they recognized as concerned with childhood and growing youth. The president of Creighton University expresses this distinction very well, when he says: "Unfortunately education, which ought to signify a *drawing out*, has come to be regarded as the proper word to denote *putting in*. Properly it supposes that there is something in the mind capable of development, faculties that can be trained, implicit knowledge that can be made explicit, dormant powers that can be awakened. The main end of education should be to unfold these faculties. It means not so much the actual imparting of knowledge as the development of the power to gain knowledge, to apply the intellect, to cultivate taste, to utilize the memory, to make proper use of observations and facts. It is not essential that the studies which produce these results should be directly useful in after life any more than it is necessary for the athlete in the development of his muscles to wield the blacksmith's hammer, instead of using dumbbells or horizontal bars, none of which play any part in his subsequent career; he puts them all aside when the physical powers have been developed."

Dr. McCosh, who was for twenty years president of Princeton University, speaks in the same strain, and although his theme is college education, the point he makes applies with still greater force to intermediate and high school education. "There is a loud demand," he says, "in the present day for college education being made what they call practical. I believe that this is a mistake. A well-known ship-builder once said to me: 'Do not try to teach my art in school; see that you make the youth intelligent, and then I will easily teach him ship-building.' The business of a college is to teach principles that admit of all sorts of practical application. The youth thus trained will start life in far better circumstances than those who have learned only the details of their craft, which are best learned in offices, stores and factories, and he will commonly outstrip them in the rivalries of life. He will be able to advance when others are obliged to stop."

This last remark of Dr. McCosh's is fraught with the gravest import. When others are obliged to stop, the well-educated man goes on improving his mind all his life. And this is precisely what serious educators should aim at. We are building not for the moment ment, but for all time. The young man who has received a truly lib-

eral education from his childhood upwards—not the man who in mature manhood has secured a degree by tacking on a little Latin and less Logic to an incomplete school training, but—the youth whose memory, imagination, and judgment have been symmetrically developed through a long course of familiarity with the greatest thinkers of the past and present, may indeed begin the struggles of life later than those who specialized early, but, as years go by, the one who has laid a deeper foundation of general culture will be known as the abler and more successful lawyer and judge, the greater physician or preacher, the more prosperous business man. Few sights are sadder than the helpless vacuity of mind that encompasses the self-made, half-educated man who retires at sixty from the whirl of business in the delusive hope of enjoying the fortune he has accumulated with so much thankless labor. No such empty old age awaits the man whose training has been thorough and prolonged from childhood to manhood. The only limit to his mental development is the hour of death. Gladstone, who was preeminently such a man, won his greatest triumphs between his sixtieth and his eighty-fourth years; and who can deny that the great mind of Leo XIII., trained in the good old way, developed far more in the last twenty-five years of his life—when his exalted station as Pope brought him into contact with all the kings of men—than in the previous 68 years. People who at first bemoaned his age, as if a man of 68 was too old to govern firmly, were soon obliged to confess that his intellect was as active and vivid as the youngest, his judgment as wise as the oldest, and his will power as unbending as the strongest.

The origin of this life-long mental development can always be traced to the early cultivation of that master faculty of the human mind which we call judgment, that basic principal of business, literature and talent, which gives a man strength in every subject he chooses to grapple with and enables him to seize the strong point in everything that is presented to his intellect. How to brush aside irrelevant detail, groundless objections and meretricious ornament for the sake of issues that are all-important and all-embracing, is the secret of a strong brain and corresponds with our best idea of a cultivated mind.

Another first principle which challenges examination into its right to acceptance is the axiom, explicitly or implicitly believed in by many teachers of the present day, that all learning should be made easy. The contrary principle is enunciated by Huxley when he says: "The

best result of all education is the acquired power of making yourself do what you ought to do, when you ought to do it, whether you like it or not." The easy going principle is responsible for the multiplication of elective courses and for the consequent deterioration in the value of university degrees, so that nowadays the fact of holding such degrees from anti-traditional universities is no longer a guarantee that the holder has had a truly liberal training, nor even that he has so much as touched the fringe of the aristocracy of culture. The manly principle of self-conquest still holds the fort in mathematics, doubtless because that science is essentially refractory to the kid glove and feather bed treatment. Thus mathematics, although of no particular use in developing the judgment and therefore not essential to the highest kind of education, is invaluable inasmuch as it compels attention, requires sustained effort and evolves necessary truths. In this way, with the too prevalent mania for change, under the mistaken notion that every change is an improvement, the exact science of quantities and their relations remains like a monumental lighthouse amid the shifting sands of educational theories.

We hear so much, in popular pedagogic treatises, about the 'sanctity of the individual's will' that our idea of human nature is apt to become distorted. Formerly, among a certain class the total depravity theory was the stumbling block; now, the theory of general sanctity is the real danger. No doubt there is something holy in human nature, inasmuch as it is made in the likeness of God. But that sanctity is not pure and unalloyed, that likeness is not altogether perfect. Divine revelation, the world's history, daily experience and our innermost conscience tell us that there are disorders, that there are not only holy, but also animal desires, not only upward, but also downward tendencies in our nature, nay, that these latter very often prevail. In youth they take the shape of love of pleasure together with a leaning to idleness, the fruitful mother of many vices. Educators of the old school thought that these moral diseases could be cured only by their contraries, sloth by enforced application, giddiness by compulsory attention. So they tried seriously to occupy the children's minds, to accustom them to hard, steady work; they trained them to overcome dislikes, to do their duty even at the cost of breaking down the rebellious will. Now, we are told, that was all wrong, it was only the outcropping of the severe and gloomy asceticism of former ages. Our modern pedagogues

have discovered that the remedies of education ought to be homoeopathic—like cures like. 'The poor children are overburdened, make it easy for them. Give full vent to the pupil's inclinations; do not force him to do anything he dislikes, this would be interfering with the sanctity of the individual.' " (Schwickerath, Jesuit Education, p. 318).

Against this theory Professor Münsterberg, of Harvard University, says: "A child who is allowed to follow his tastes and inclinations in everything he studies may learn a thousand pretty things, but never the one which is the greatest of all—to *do his duty.* He who is allowed always to follow the paths of least resistance never develops the power to overcome resistance; he remains utterly unprepared for life. To do what we like to do,—that needs no pedagogical encouragement; water always runs down hill. Our whole public and social life shows the working of this impulse, and our institutions outbid one another in catering to the taste of the public. The school alone has the power to develop the opposite tendency, to encourage and train the belief in duties and obligations, to inspire devotion to better things than those to which we are drawn by our lower instincts. Yes, water runs down the hill all the time, and yet all the earth were sterile and dead if water could not ascend again to the clouds, and supply rain to the field that brings us the harvest. We see only the streams going down to the ocean; we do not see how the ocean sends up the waters to bless our fields. Just so do we see in the streams of life the human emotions following the impulses down to selfishness and pleasure and enjoyment, but we do not see how the human emotions ascend again to the ideals,—ascend in feelings of duty and enthusiasm; and yet without this upward movement our fields were dry, our harvests lost. That invisible work is the sacred mission of the school; it is the school that must raise man's mind from his likings to his belief in duties, from his instincts to his ideals, that art and science, national honor and morality, friendship and religion, may spring from the ground and blossom."

This simile of Professor Münsterberg's suggests another first principle in education, the third and last which I shall consider this evening. I mean the necessity in moral training of that divine light and warmth of which the sun pumping up the waters of the ocean is an apt figure. This necessity is denied by many who hold for what is called independent morality. They follow Kant's teaching about the

autonomy of human reason, a teaching which is not only deficient but positively false, since, by making the reason a law unto the will, it sets up in our nature a duality to which conscience bears no witness. A law supposes a law-giver, a person distinct from the one whom that law binds. No one issues precepts or commands to himself. Doubtless the man that does wrong offends against his own reason, but he does more, he offends against a higher Reason, substantially distinct from his, standing to it in the relation of Archetype to type, a Living Reason, purely and supremely rational. The Archetype is outraged by the violation of the type. Moreover, as the two are substantially distinct, the one being God, the other a faculty of man, there is room for command, for law, and as the Divine Lawgiver is infinitely just and almighty, there must be just punishment. This alone will ensure moral rectitude in the face of secret and strong inducements to evil. The men and women who have to 'buffet with the surge of temptation in the wide world' laugh to scorn the theoretical restraints of the categorical imperative. So ineffectual is the mere knowledge of right and wrong that our prisons are filled with well educated criminals. Other still more highly educated thieves on a grand scale, the vampires who gorge themselves on the people's millions and sacrifice to the categorical imperative by munificent donations of a tenth of their ill gotten gains, use their higher knowledge not only to evade the penitentiary which they deserve, but to advertize themselves as benefactors of their countrymen. No, you might as well attempt to "quarry the rock with razors"—to use the words of a great writer—"or moor the vessel with a thread of silk" as hope "with such a keen and delicate instrument as human knowledge and human reason to contend against those giants, the passion and the pride of man."

NATIONAL RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

REV. THOMAS B. KILPATRICK, M.A., D.D.

(Manitoba College, Winnipeg.)

The thesis I have to maintain before you to-night is "that national education ought to be religious." By this I mean, not only that national education should be sustained by religious motives, suffused with religious influences, directed towards religious issues in life and conduct, but also that the youth of the nation ought to be educated in religion; that, in the national educational system, religion should be included; that religion may be, and ought to be, definitely taught to every child within the land.

PART I.—THE AIM.

In the general conception thus indicated, certain elements are to be discerned. Let us briefly review them.

1. Nationality.—How is nationality to be understood? How, in particular, is Canada to be constituted as a nation? The difficulties in the way are enormous—connected with the differences to be found in our population, differences of race, of intellectual development, of church and creed, together with the difficulties resulting from geographical situation. The obvious, the threatening danger is that of disintegration, and resultant anarchy. The pressing problem is that of integration, articulation, unification. Where shall we look for the solution? It cannot be sought in any accumulation of the materials of civilization. The increase of these, and the competition for them, and the strife attendant upon their distribution, will rather accentuate the tendency to disintegration. The solution is to be found only in the truths and principles which unite men in a moral order, as fellow-subjects within a realm of righteousness; and in the heightened sense of mutual obligation, and in the increase of mutual respect and mutual charity. Nationality rests on the ideal and ethical sides of life. It is rooted in truth, honesty, purity, love, self-sacrifice. It finds its function and its justification in the

conservation and propagation of these, throughout the whole community.

2. Morality.—Nationality, then, is based on morality. On what is morality based? How shall the ideal aspects of life be revealed, be made regnant, and be brought to bear with practical and continuous efficacy upon the conduct of national and individual life? An answer might be sought on the speculative side, by pointing out that *mere* morality, the righteousness of conformity to an external standard, is not *true* morality. Morality, even to be moral, i.e., to give to action genuine moral worth, must be more than morality. It must include, not only recognition of the excellence of the standard, but discernment of the authority of which the standard is the expression, and prostration of the reason and the will before it. The agent, to be moral, must have insight into the quality of the act which authority ordains. He must be in spiritual union with the authority which he obeys. Morality, in short, is based on religion.

The same answer meets us, from the historical side, in the fact that religion has always been the chief factor in social evolution. The ideals of morality, its principles and rules, are the exhibition and application of religion (I do not say of the cultus or the creed), as they are, of course, the test and criticism of the forms, intellectual or aesthetic, in which religion may at any time clothe itself.

In ages past, religion confronted the license of self-will, the imperiousness of passion, with its stern imperative, ordaining surrender and mortification. She stooped to every form of suffering and need with proffer and conveyance of consolation. She trained and elevated every noble impulse; enlarged and enriched every vision of goodness. And to-day, religion holds the same sacred office. The morality of our nation, without which we cannot be a nation, stands rooted in our national religion.

3. Religion.—What, then, is this power which is to make the nation? What is religion? (1) Its Essence. In one word, it is union with God. *Apart from* this, there is the mere form. *With this*, under any form, there is the reality. Man is truly man; he answers to his true vocation; he rises to his ideal;—when he is one with God. (2) Its Manifestation. As impulse, feeling, speculation, religion could not have survived, save as a craving. It has lived, because historically mediated. Union with God, for the sons of men, is possible only through the Son of Man. God and Man meet in Christ. Historically, it is in Christ, i.e., in the historic facts pre-

paratory to His coming, in the historic facts of His own life, and in the historic fact of the fellowship with God enjoyed by those who believe in Him, that God comes to man, and man finds God. (3) Its Realization. The general becomes personal in the act of will, in the dedication of life to the service of Christ. Without this personal decision there can be, for the individual, no religion. When this has taken place, Christ enters, and occupies and reigns; and the man becomes one with God. This is religion. This is the maker of the nation. (4) Religious Education. Education, then, must be religious. Its aim, being the educing of manhood, can be accomplished only by that which makes men, viz., by religion. A national educational system which ignores religion stultifies itself. It cannot make a nation; it may destroy it. But in what does religious education consist? Can religion be taught? Take the three elements in religion noted above. As to the first, Union with God, there can be no question. This cannot be taught. It is accomplished wholly from the Divine side, is an act of God, directly by His Spirit, indirectly through the means of grace. No school can effect it. We move here wholly in the region of the supernatural. As to the third, the Determination of the Will, this, strictly speaking, cannot be taught. But *it can be prepared for.* Here, no doctrinal question need emerge. All will agree that education should issue in a mind, open to the ethical and the ideal, in a will, ready to decide for the highest. Here, accordingly, are elements of immense value for religion, which ought to be found in every public school, however secular. They are such as these: (i) School discipline, training the pupils in habits of obedience and self-control. (ii) Courses of study, e.g., mathematics, physical science, history, impressing their minds with the ideas of Law, Order, End. (iii) Direct ethical teaching, in earlier stages chiefly by means of narrative, later, in more systematic form. (iv) Nature study, and training in art, awakening conceptions of the Beautiful. (v) Intellectual discipline as a whole, which, when conducted under a lofty sense of the worth of man and the dignity of culture, has proved splendidly efficacious in counteracting a base materialism. With this must be combined (vi) the example of the teacher. No nobler service, save one, can be rendered to the community than that of the teacher. So much the more deplorable will be any failure of high aim, of lofty spirit, of pure motive.

It is in connection with the second of the above mentioned elements of religion, its manifestation in facts and deeds, its historic

mediation, that the occasion and opportunity of express teaching are to be found. It need not be said (though it is often repeated in this connection) that to communicate knowledge of historic data does not make the child religious. Of course not! Nor need it be urged that there may be ample knowledge, and yet no religion. Of course! But religion *has been historically mediated.* It, therefore, implies knowledge; and this knowledge must be communicated. That relation to God which *is* religion is a relation of the whole man to God; and this includes his intellect. The New Testament everywhere insists on knowledge. It is impossible to believe in a God, of whose character as revealed in His acts, nothing is known. We conclude, therefore, that education must be religious: first, in its scope and tone; second, through such elements even in secular schools as those indicated above; third, in the definite communication of specifically religious facts and conceptions.

PART II.—METHODS.

Here, then, is the practical problem—how is this definite religious teaching to be given? Certain well known methods may be referred to.

1. State compulsion, the imposition of a uniform code. However good the results may be, e.g., in the schools of Protestant Germany, this method is wholly inapplicable in Canada, and need not be discussed.

2. Secularism in the public school, supplemented by the work of the Sunday School, and kindred institutions. This method prevails in the United States. Taken at its worst, this plan is an educational monstrosity, and involves a crime against the child-nature, which, in the case of every nation which adopts such a system, is sure to be punished by the demoralization of public and private life. Taken at its best, when there is an honest endeavor to secure in every public school such preparations for religion as those indicated in a foregoing paragraph, there is this grave objection that morality is separated from its base in religion, and accordingly tends to become unstable, and to fall back into the abyss of mere secularism. Many religious leaders in America, however, and even in England, seem to have accepted this as the only practicable plan. If we are reduced to this, two things must be done, if by any means the danger mentioned above is to be obviated: (a) The general moral aspect of the public school must be carefully guarded

and ceaselessly developed; (b) A Sunday School system, far more wisely organized and efficiently operated than is anywhere the case at present, must be maintained alongside of the public school.

3. Denominationalism in Education—the "separate schools" system. The argument for it may be stated thus: "Education must be religious. But religion consists in a special creed and cultus. Therefore education must be dominated by that creed, and must have the aid of such rites and ornaments as belong to the exercise of religion. Hence every religious body which holds firmly by certain dogmas must have its Separate Schools; and these schools must have the support of the State."

This is, in Canada, claimed only by the Church of Rome. But, plainly, it might be claimed by any denomination. Presbyterianism, Methodism, and Congregationalism have each had experience of splendidly successful separate school systems, and would be quite prepared, if necessity arose, to repeat their efforts. While we most heartily sympathize with those who urge this system, so far as their interest in religion is concerned, there are certain grave objections to the proposal: (i) The tendency, seemingly unavoidable in such schools, (I speak mainly from observation of cases in Great Britain) toward deterioration in educational efficiency. The claim of religion is, without doubt, paramount. But the claim of religion is not truly urged, when it leads to a diminution of intellectual culture. (ii) The change produced in religion itself, which becomes, no more a unifying, but rather a divisive influence; and ceases to be a national concern, being made merely a perquisite of Sects. (iii) The subjection of religion and education alike to the domination of political parties, whereby they would straightway cease to be elevating influences in national life.

There remains a plan, which, broadly speaking, is that carried out in most of the schools of Scotland. Details may be studied in the Scottish Education Act. They are not, of course, in every respect suited to conditions in Canada. Yet certain general suggestions derived from the Scottish method might be found fruitful.

(1) Religious teaching should be enjoined by the Department, and not merely, as at present, permitted.

(2) It should be provided for within school hours, and find its place in the curriculum.

(3) The school areas should be enlarged. The number of members should be increased. Greater importance should be attached

to their duties. The reward, and also the continuous discipline, of publicity should be applied to their deliberations, and to their decisions.

(4) To school boards, thus constituted, the preparation of the curriculum of religious instruction might be entrusted. Provision would, of course, need to be made, both for a "conscience clause" according to which no child would be forced to receive instruction disapproved by the parents, and for the religious instruction of the children of minorities within the school area.

(5) The curriculum for all parts of the country where Protestantism prevails (if, unhappily, we cannot rise above the divisions of Christendom) would consist in instruction in what I have called above the historic mediation of religion. In practice, this means instruction in the Bible, as the record of the historic process through which Christianity has been revealed. A course of study extending throughout the eight grades could readily be devised, in which, without denominational bias, the great movement, whereby the union of God and man in Christ was accomplished, would be pourtrayed in a simple, scientific, and objective manner. (By far the best curriculum of this kind with which I am acquainted is that of the School Board of Dundee.) This would be no attempt to teach religion in the senses in which it cannot be taught; but it would be the communication of those great religious facts and ideas without which religion could not be; a teaching which the child has a right to demand from the nation into which he is born, and which he will be expected to serve. It would impose no doctrinal type upon the minds of the pupils. They would come free and un-biased to the Sunday Schools and other denominational institutions, where specific dogmas are properly taught; and they would come to such schools with the great advantage of having their minds fully and accurately stored with the historic data which are pre-supposed in all doctrinal teaching, and are common to every division of the Christian Church. It must be remembered also that there are children, not merely in the slums but also in the finest residences of our great cities, growing up, under our present system—or want of system—destitute of all religious training, in practical paganism. By the scheme for which I plead, there could be opened up, for such children, the spiritual and ideal aspect of life. They would be shown in history the trend of the divine purpose; and would be informed of its great events, and of its profound significance. The

knowledge thus acquired is not—need we repeat it—religion; but it is the groundwork of religion. Without it, religion will fade into a mist. With it, the religious instinct, which belongs to man as such, is strengthened and informed, and prepared for that in which religion does consist, a personal relation to God.

(6) Means should be taken to make teachers and scholars alike feel that religious education is held in the honor which belongs to it, by all classes in the community. In Scotland, and in England, associations exist for encouraging teachers and scholars in the work. (The work of the Donaldson Trust in Aberdeen has been of immense value. On one occasion, it was my privilege to hear a lady teacher take a class of pupils of about fourteen or fifteen years of age through a lesson in the Gospel of St. John. Nothing could have been better done).

By means such as these, let our national education be made religious, and, by the blessing of the Almighty upon work honestly done for His praise, the result will be a nation growing throughout the years in the true strength of nationality, fearing God and knowing no other fear, and holding an honoured place in the family of the nations.

Note.—At Dr. Goggin's request I have embodied in the closing part of my address certain practical suggestions for which there was no time at the meeting. In doing so I have necessarily altered the form of the concluding paragraphs.

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL PROGRESS.

GEORGE H. LOCKE.

(Dean of the College of Education, The University of Chicago.)

It gives me particular pleasure to be with you to-day and to have this opportunity of bringing before the members of the Dominion Educational Association some of the ideas for which we who are in educational work in the United States are standing. I have chosen to discuss the relationships between education and social progress so that I may the more readily show the general trend of educational thought with us. I shall endeavor, therefore, to touch upon what I consider a few of the interesting relationships which have been developed in modern times with the purpose of showing how intimate they are and yet how neglected has been the field. The history of education is full of instances where men have appreciated this intimate relationship and have organized their schools and developed their curricula with a view to establishing this relationship on a rational basis. These have sometimes been philosophers, but more often they have been school men with a knowledge of the world of affairs—a knowledge of such depth and scope as to lead them to see that their schools were not in that intimate relationship necessary to make them positive contributors to social progress.

When I speak of education I feel it is almost necessary even in an assembly of teachers to define that term. True, the definition of education is one of the first things we learn in our marvellous books on education. Our voluminous writers quote a definition of education and then proceed to elaborate a theory or practice of education wholly at variance with the definition. They very often call to my mind my experience with Latin grammar when I learned a rule, a few illustrations mild and innocuous under the rule, and then some pages of exceptions.

I think I may safely affirm without entering too minutely into the reasons therefor that the old definitions of education which told us that it was the "harmonious development of all the human

powers" and on the other hand was "the adaptation of man to his environment" were faulty and inadequate, inasmuch as the definition of the terms of the definitions seems to puzzle the apologists; and the omission of the end in the first definition and of the means in the second suggests failure to comprehend the ideal. Again there is a suggestion in this of education as a state to be attained, an idea that has been furthered by our phrase—"an educated man," upon the exact definition of which hardly any two of us agree.

Let me then without loss of time state my position that we must get away from the conception of education as *static* and think of it as *dynamic;* let us dismiss the idea of education as being a state which after hard travelling we reach, and footsore and weary from our arduous progress upon the road of learning, we contemplate the land of rest, the educational saint's delight.

Let us rather look upon education as a process, something going on, and then perhaps we can agree with my revered head, Dr. Dewey, when he says that education is the continuous reconstruction of one's experience with a view to making him a more socialized individual through the medium of self-control. This to my mind, is the only satisfactory way of looking upon education, the only one which emphasizes the idea of growth and development.

But in the limited time at our disposal as well as the selfish and individual manner in which we are compelled to use this time, it is well to make our task as simple and concrete as possible. Therefore I shall take the school, which is the institutional side of education, and discuss its relationship to social progress. I am fully aware that according to my definition this is only a part of the education, is only an economic organization to facilitate a desired end, but it is that with which most of us are best acquainted and is the best type form.

We are so often told that the school reflects civilization and that such is its function that very many of us have accepted this as true, and are satisfied if the school is able to do this in a fairly successful manner. Presumably the persons who make such a statement mean that it reflects *existing* civilization—that in its curriculum it reflects the typical and enduring phases of the great social life in which we are participators, and that in its organization and administration it reflects the best of the social conditions under which we live.

Let me suppose for a moment that this is so—then we have the picture of the school as a reflector, a sort of passive something, to be acted upon, but which cannot make progress until the social life has gone ahead and done something. Then when something has been done and likely done for many years, thoroughly tried at the expense of much experimenting, the school is brought up and rehabilitated so that it will reflect the changed condition of society. There is therefore no activity, no positiveness, no leadership in such a school.

My position is that even were this so, were it true that the school reflects existing civilization *it would not be a desirable state*—that such a conception of the function of the school is decidedly inadequate, and that the right kind of social progress cannot be economically attained if such a conception is allowed to stand and condition the future of the school.

But the situation is hardly endowed with even *this* promise. If one examines carefully some of the curricula of some of our schools and enquires into the organization and administration he will find that there are persisting in the school many things which seem to have no corresponding virtue in the social life. The presence of many of the subjects of our curricula can be explained only on the ground of *tradition*, that at some time in the far distant past these subjects had a distinct social value, that the acquirement of these meant that the person was better able to participate in social life, make a greater success of life, be more useful and therefore more happy. This civilization has passed away but the subjects remain. I have no objection to them as relics, but I would place them where relics belong—in the museum. It is needless for me in such an assembly as this to give illustrations of this tendency, to select the subjects which seem to me to confirm my statement.

When a part of the body ceases to function it generally is not only useless but an incumbrance and is a centre for disease. It is not wholly different in education, and it is not a wholly irrevelant question to ask concerning a subject in our curriculum—of what use is it?—or as the school boy puts it—What good is it? We ought to be able to defend our position. If we believe a subject is of use let us be able to give a reason for the faith that is in us—if we believe it is not of use, let us cast it out, and give our energy to those things which are of help in leading boys and girls to appreciate the relative values of the social phases of life.

Again on the organization and administration side of our

schools we are not wholly free from this baneful influence of tradition, where the school is a place of detention and correction, a penal institution instead of a place of joy and gladness. Our system of government, of rewards and punishments, the many grotesque and antique artificial adjuncts to our system, mark this part also as out of proper relation with modern life.

My position here then is that the school has too often lagged behind in the march of civilization, that too often it not only does not reflect the existing civilization, but that it reflects a civilization that has long since passed away. Let me give an illustration of this from ancient history, lest if I quote from the life of to-day I may mention some subject which may be the pet idol of some persons here to-day, and so the main question may be sidetracked to allow of the defence of a prejudice.

In the times of the late Republic and the early Empire in Rome men attained distinction in social and political life by their efforts in the forum. This was the means by which the young Roman of intellectual ability might bring himself to the notice of the public and thus ensure public honors and public office. There were established rhetorical schools after the fashion of the schools of the Sophists and the Rhetoricians in Greece, which gave specific training for this life. These were thronged with students because the curriculum was designed to prepare young men to succeed in this profession. The work demanded an education and the education was designed to meet this demand. But as you will remember, times changed and the Emperors gradually took unto themselves all the offices that formerly were in the gift of the people. There still was the semblance of election, but the substance, the reality, had disappeared, and the Emperors filled the offices with hirelings of their own choosing. The social and political life had wholly changed. But what of the schools? They still kept up the same curriculum, they went over the same subjects in much the same way, seemingly oblivious that the demand had fallen off. They gradually became more formal and debated at great length such interesting and practical questions as: "Ought Hannibal to have pushed on to Rome after the battle of Cannae, and what would have been the result upon the history of the world if he had done so?" There was no such practical outcome as in former days, hence it became more and more formal and was an exercise in dialectic from which resulted only a certain sharpening of the instruments of the mind. The school

seems not to have realized that men had deserted public life and the forum as a career, and were giving themselves up to literature and philosophy, a sure sign of the decadence of a warlike nation.

We often quote with all the glibness with which we use a proverb: *Tempora mutantur nos mutamur in illis,* Times change and we change with them. But when we come to the examination of the truth of this proverb as applied to education we find how onesided it is. True, times do change, but unfortunately we too seldom change our educational theory and practice to suit the changed and changing times. As it was in Rome it is now in so many of our school systems. The school has to be awakened and the progress in social life, cultural, commercial and industrial, must be pointed out, and even then the sleeping school hesitates to rise.

The reason for this lethargy, this passive attitude, is that the work of education has become systematised and institutionalized and therefore resists change. There would have to be a re-making, a reconstruction, some experimentation, and the school hesitates to undertake it. I am reminded of an instance that occurred in a good, staid, New England system of schools with which I was connected. We had decided that the schools needed awakening, needed to be roused and brought up to date—which of course, involves particularly the teachers. We noticed that our teachers seemed to be Fourth Grade, Fifth Grade, Sixth Grade teachers, not teachers of girls and boys, teachers who were narrow tradesmen. Our first experiment was to take a Fourth Grade teacher and put her to teach Seventh Grade, the Seventh Grade teacher taking the Fourth. This created a great stir, and a more frightened lot of teachers I have seldom seen. The cause of their alarm was well expressed by one of them when she complained that she had been teaching the Fourth Grade fifteen years and had become so accustomed to it that she knew she could not teach any other with success. She would have to re-make her knowledge and she thought that was not fair treatment. It confirmed our fears, and we persisted in the policy of using the organization of the school system so that all of our teachers would sometimes be under the necessity of re-making their knowledge.

Laziness is a mild word to use to characterize the attitude of such teachers, and yet it can with as much appropriateness be used in connection with the attitude of the school towards social progress. We wait until the world of action has made certain definite progress,

until it is forced upon us that such progress means a change in social life of such great moment that the schools do not turn out a merchantable product, and then under the pressure we take these things into our careful consideration and *perhaps* modify the curriculum *somewhat.* About the time we have the curriculum in fair shape to meet these new demands the social world has again progressed, for there is no standing still with it, and we are again compelled to make a gallant effort.

I believe that the evil at the bottom of all this is the pernicious doctrine of which I spoke at the beginning of this talk—that education is a state.

The more we institutionalize education, the more we centralize it and remove the schools from immediate contact with the people of a community the more likely we are to have a system of schools that will resist change, that will lag behind in the march of social progress, a system that will depend upon artificial surroundings, methods and devices, devoid of life and interest. Uniformity, centralization, and other methods of turning out an average product are out of gear with the times.

But I said some time ago that the function of the school is not fulfilled when it reflects *existing* civilization. Even then we are not making legitimate progress. The school is not yet a positive factor. A social mirror, if I may use the phrase, is not a thing of life.

I maintain then, that the attitude of the school towards social life and progress is that of a leader. The school should point out to the world the better road, should hold up to the world an ideal, should organize the work so that it will lead towards that ideal in an interesting and alluring manner, and thus enable the youth of our country to excel their fathers. The school therefore ought to condition social progress, not be conditioned by social progress. This is the true scientific view of education, and I believe we cannot hope for a science of education until we have accepted such a view and are working it out in our daily work as educators. In its curriculum it ought to anticipate the social needs of the coming generation instead of giving them the food our fathers used to eat. We have too many people in the world who are telling us that the old time religion is good enough for them and that the old time education is good enough for them. Their little systems have their day, they have their day and should cease to be; the world has changed. "New occasions teach new duties and time makes an-

cient good uncouth." Men no longer govern their conduct as in the 18th century by reference to the mandates of church and state. We are living in an era of freedom and we get our standard of conduct from knowledge. We are in education to-day just beginning to appreciate the significance of the text of Holy Writ: "Ye shall know the Truth and the Truth shall set you free." We are searchers after the truth so that we may incorporate it into the curriculum of the school, and instead of reflecting the existing social life we shall have typical and enduring phases of a higher social life which it is the privilege of our girls and boys to make theirs. We are in an era of change in every department of human endeavor, and the world is looking for economical and efficient methods of making progress. It is not satisfied with individual, isolated, sporadic, and fugitive experiment. It is looking to the school to furnish this guiding power to something better.

Therefore I hold that the school at present is not aware of its function, does not realize its responsibilities, does not dream of the possibilities within it, and is therefore not socially efficient. Lest I be thought pessimistic, let me assert that on the contrary I am decidedly optimistic. We *are* making progress—the history of education in the civilized countries of the world during the past twenty-five years proves it conclusively. The trouble is that we have not realized the possibilities and the responsibilities before us. We need to be awakened; we need to get together. We need a policy, a plan of compaign, we need to unify our efforts, and then we shall be able to *anticipate* progress so that society will have something worth while towards which to press forward. We must not in education any more than in religion be afraid of the truth.

It is not a crime to break with tradition. Let us cast aside those things that have been besetting us, find out "the causes of things" as Lucretius says, and frame a philosophy of life which will not only meet the wants of this generation, but will point out the way to the larger life in which our girls and boys are to be participators.

These words are not fanciful, these plans are not chimerical. True they are ahead and beyond, but only that which is beyond is worth striving for. Let us not be content with the actual but stretch out after the possible. If you have read the history of education in an intelligent manner, you will recognize that this is an "ancient splendid dream that has manhood for its fabric, perfection for its theme, with freedom for its morning star, and knowledge for its sun."

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ONTARIO—ITS EXCELLENCIES AND ITS DEFECTS.

By John Millar, B.A., Toronto,

Deputy Minister of Education, Ontario.

Under the British North America Act each Province of the Dominion has been wisely left to control its own system of education. Our deliberations as I understand are not for the purpose of promoting uniformity or unification We meet rather to compare notes and to offer such suggestions as may be mutually advantageous. We could not if we would, and we would not if we could, require one Province of Canada to accept the educational features of another. Conditions are often the result of historic causes, and a change cannot readily be made without disturbing what is cherished as valuable in the entire structure.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL.

The first feature of the Ontario system which presents itself is the general responsibility of the Government respecting all parts of education. The Minister of Education being a member of the Provincial Cabinet is presumed to recognize all defects in school matters, and with the consent of his colleagues to propose such legislation from time to time as will secure any necessary improvement that may be practicable. The Ontario system is not so different as might at first appear from that which prevails in the other provinces. In Nova Scotia or New Brunswick where there is a Chief Superintendent of Education, the Government as in Ontario, is held responsible for the policy of its Education Department. In Ontario the permanent staff practically takes the place of the Chief Superintendent and his assistants in each of the lower provinces. The control of education by a Chief Superintendent as it exists in the United States, even were it desirable, would be impossible under our system of responsible government.

This control of education by a Minister of the Crown is inseparably connected with the British system of constitutional government, and responsibility to the Legislative Assembly cannot from the very nature of things be separated entirely from the evils flowing from the party system of government. I am aware some very eminent writers condemn the party system, but with all the evils of party politics, and there are evils, the advantages more than counterbalance. It is not too much to expect, moreover, that by wise legislation the mischief of the serpent of party may be curtailed.

The evils of party politics in relation to educational affairs may be lessened in various ways. viz.: (1) By leaving many questions to the local authorities concerned. (2) By placing on the Statute Book such provisions as will wisely direct or limit executive action. (3) By further requiring general Orders-in-Council or Regulations having about the same publicity as the School Law itself, and (4) by recognizing the right of Trustees, Teachers, Inspectors, University Authorities, etc., to be consulted about matters with which they should ordinarily be better acquainted than members of the Legislature. An Educational Council, a Consultative Committee, or an Advisory Board, may if properly constituted and its functions clearly defined, become a very serviceable body—especially so far as concerns examinations where technical knowledge is essential.

It has been claimed that the satisfactory administration of educational affairs by a cabinet minister is impossible unless he had had practical acquaintance with the work of school or college. Doubtless such knowledge is valuable, but it is not essential any more than practical acquaintance with the work of any other Department is essential to the Minister in charge. The best school trustees are not necessarily those who were teachers. Some of the best Ministers of War in England were never soldiers. A Postmaster General may never have carried the mails in a country district. The late Sir John A. Macdonald who rose to such eminence as the first Premier of the Dominion was never distinguished at the bar before he became Attorney-General.

EXPERT ADVICE.

I have already referred to the fact that under the British system of Government a Minister must be held responsible for all executive acts of his Department. He is privileged, however, to take council from any quarter. The members of the Civil Service and

officers of the Department are presumed to be in more or less close touch with the Minister's policy. Their advice under every efficient method of executive action must be that upon which a responsible Minister usually relies. It is evident, however, that the public will insist upon having affairs administered to the satisfaction of the Legislative body. The wisdom of properly gauging public sentiment is apparent to every administration. The judgment of the man in the street cannot always be accepted. Views may be momentarily popular which careful examination by experts will show to be fallacious. How far a Minister may guide popular sentiment is a question constantly brought to his attention. The public as well as the Legislature will often be convinced should the views of the Government on school matters be in accordance with those of educationists.

The Minister of Education under a system such as prevails in Ontario has plenty of advice. Everyone, from the President of a University to the teacher in a log school house, may be ready to tell him what subjects should be taught, and how money may be best expended for education. The successful Minister must know how to weigh opinions and to determine upon whose judgment it will be safe for him to rely. He must have a mind of his own. Advice may be given from selfish or political motives.

An advisory committee is not so readily organized as some would suppose. No possible council that I have ever heard proposed would be a safe one for a Minister at all times to follow. A Board competent to consider all kinds of educational questions would be unwieldy. This will readily be seen from the fact that a Minister must deal with courses of study for High and Public schools, requirements for teachers' examinations, the authorization of text books, and provisions governing various educational authorities. The necessities for amendments to the School Law and the special claims of counties, municipalities and school boards would suggest calling to the assistance of the Minister a representative or selective body so large as to be unmanageable. It should also be understood that since advice and not executive action is to be the function of an Advisory Board, many questions have to be dealt with so very carefully that to follow the judgment of the majority of a Council on some occasions would be exceedingly dangerous, Perhaps the most serviceable body to give suggestions on education in our Province is the Ontario Educational Association. This organization, how-

ever, has several sections or departments, the opinions of which may sometimes be conflicting. The Minister must act upon his own judgment or on that of those who understand the whole situation, and who are responsible to him for the advice they give. In fact any irresponsible body guiding the policy of a Minister of Education would soon make havoc of our system of government. The British or American method must be followed. I prefer the former.

It might be said that a Council made up of gentlemen of eminent scholarship would be a safe committee. I have yet to learn, however, that University Professors, eminent and honorable though they may be, are not subject to like passions as other men and might be influenced like persons in humbler callings by their environments. The teaching profession at large should doubtless be consulted on all matters affecting courses of study and other pedagogical questions. The Minister must continually look to the inspectorate for opinions. The High and Public school inspectors from their positions have the best opportunities for framing sound opinions on matters pertaining to their schools. Perhaps Normal School and County Model School Principals are in like manner the most competent to give advice respecting the training of teachers. There are, however, the various trustee boards which cannot be ignored, and their opinions must be sought, if under a democratic system of government the people are to be well governed. From what I have said it therefore follows that the Minister who is most competent for his position is not necessarily the one who is the best scholar, or who has had most experience as a teacher, but the one who like other Ministers has a good general knowledge of the Department under his control, and who is especially competent to seek expert advice, and to know how to discount advice which may be given from selfish motives.

CENTRALIZATION.

The Ontario system of education has been marked by a large measure of centralization. In the early days much was gained by giving the central authorities considerable power. Educational progress, however, calls for some decentralization not desirable in a new country. To determine what should be left to the locality, and what should be retained by the Government is a problem in legislation which is not confined to education. Experience is perhaps our best guide in this matter.

For more than thirty years the duty of examining candidates

for Inspectors' and Teachers' certificates has been performed by the Education Department. Indeed, although universities examine students for degrees the Department has exercised its right to determine who shall teach in our High and Public schools. To allow Universities or County Boards, subject as they would be to local influences, to examine candidates, has evident objections. The utilization of Matriculation and other university examinations for teachers' certificates has in some respects been abandoned. The diversity of standards so much deplored in the United States has its warnings for Canada. When New York and most of the Western States, are approaching centralization in the examination of teachers, Ontario may well adhere to the principle I have mentioned.

The High School, Separate School and County Model School Inspectors are appointed by the Government. The Public School Inspectors are generally appointed by the local authorities concerned, but they must have high qualifications which are fixed by regulation. The appointment of Public School Inspectors by the locality concerned has its drawbacks, viz., the difficulties an officer has in enforcing the requirements of the law. A few of our Public School Inspectors, —those for the districts—are appointed by Orders-in-Council. Although on general principles it would appear better to have inspectors independent of local influences, yet experience would not warrant me in saying that better results would arise if these officers were appointed by the Government. I cannot say that those of our Inspectors appointed by the Government are more efficient than those otherwise chosen. There is a weakness, however, in the system as it works. Inspectors in many places would make themselves very unpopular if they exercised such control as might be in the interests of the schools. Much has been accomplished, however, by judicious effort. It would be desirable I think, to have a small number of general officers appointed by the Government, who might in view of their high qualifications, large experience, and good discretionary powers, dispose of many questions without endangering an inspector's relations to County Councils or School Trustees. Were the Province to have such officers to perform to some extent the duties of Agents in the State of Massachusetts, Supervisors in New York, or School Inspectors in England, much good might follow. Such duties would include addresses on education, the inspection of Continuation Classes, the direction of Teachers' Institutes, and the disposal of other matters calling for the distribution of legisla-

tive aid where uniformity for the entire Province would only be fair.

Uniformity of courses of study for our High and Public Schools has been a leading characteristic of our system. Much can be said in favor of centralization in this respect, as it naturally places emphasis on the more important subjects, and prevents the introduction of fads. If every locality had the right to determine its own course of study the introduction of many subjects of secondary importance might arise, and the essential branches might be neglected. The Province has carefully guarded our schools from the inroads that would be made if every enthusiast for some new branch were at liberty to convert trustees or teachers to his way of thinking. At the same time centralization has its weakness. It often stands in the way of progress. It prevents the introduction of new subjects even when their value is recognized by educationalists. Greater latitude is therefore desirable, and in this direction the Education Department of Ontario has been moving of late years. It is safe to say that while the essential subjects should be prescribed greater freedom may wisely be allowed regarding subjects not so necessary.

Ontario has been noted for its policy of uniform text books. It saves parents very much expense, and children and teachers from confusion. The Province is specially wedded to this feature of our system, but it also has its drawbacks. It is popular to preach economy. Cheapness takes with the ordinary ratepayer. The politician loves to say that our school books are cheaper or dearer than those in other countries. Does the value of a book, however, depend upon its price or its size? May it not be poor policy to tie down a child to a book that costs only 25c. rather than to allow a much better one which costs 50c.? One weakness of our text book system is that it is difficult to have a new book introduced even when the one in use is already condemned. The cry of "too many changes" in text books may prevent improvement. Our present regulations provide for having text books available to the profession for some length of time before authorization. The value of a book can be fully tested only when used in the class. Experience has shown that some freedom might be allowed in regard to High School books. A choice is now given in some subjects. Possibly this indicates a justifiable departure from the policy at one time in vogue. With this elasticity for advanced pupils I think perhaps our system of uniform text books is one that may be adhered to with advantage.

California is a sufficient warning to all governments not to undertake the publication of text books.

FREE SCHOOLS.

In Ontario the elementary schools are free. The older citizens are familiar with the contests which some forty years ago were carried on in the interests of free education. Whether or not a rate bill should be imposed was the question which made every school section a battle ground at the annual meetings. In the light of modern conceptions of brotherhood, the fights of the past appear difficult to understand. That a man who had no children should be compelled to pay for the education of those of another was argued as contrary to individual rights. It was not thought then and perhaps is not even now by some persons that in the interests of the state the man without a family would suffer no injustice if he paid a double tax. It was not until 1871 that the cause of free schools triumphed, and the bells of 5,000 schools rang glad notes to cheer the sons and daughters of poor parents in their efforts to get on in the world.

At this stage of the world's progress the benefits of free schools need not be pointed out. Few in this country regard the expenditure for education as an outlay for charitable purposes. Aristocratic countries are slow to form an accurate estimate of the effects of education upon national development. The free school has been a great blessing but "it doth not yet appear" what it may be. The foundation of our institutions and the hope of the future depend upon the work of the teacher. Our schools are not as they are in European countries, for the people, but schools of the people. In Great Britain it is argued the people must be guarded from ignorance; illiteracy must be removed; crime and vice must be suppressed; all children must if possible be self-supporting. In Canada, however, I trust we support our schools not only on these but on additional grounds. We have learned to recognize that our resources are developed by education, and that every educated individual adds to the wealth of the state. The better educated a man is (I do not say the better scholar he is) the higher will be his service to the nation. The father who educates his children is contributing to the wealth of the community. Christianity holds each man as simply a trustee of his wealth as well as his talents.

I regret that our high schools are not all free. In this respect our conception of free education does not come up to that held in

some of the other provinces, and what prevails almost universally in the Eastern, Middle and Western States. True it is we have provision by which each school board can make the school free or impose a fee. The majority of our high schools are free, and there is an increase of late years in the number of schools where no fees are imposed. For various reasons, however, the growth of free secondary education has been slow. In many places there still lingers the idea that our high schools are class institutions. Too often it is held even yet that they are intended for persons who enter the professions. Modern views as to courses of study have fortunately made our secondary schools more popular, and larger municipal as well as provincial support has been secured. Ontario gives annually large grants to high schools and collegiate institutes. It is questionable whether any assistance should on principle be given to schools that debar the less wealthy classes from obtaining their privileges. If our country is to prosper we must see to it that secondary education as well as elementary education is placed within the reach of all. The high school should become the "poor man's college." We might well in Ontario take lessons from our brethren down by the sea, and especially from the Americans, who have made their high schools a characteristic part of free public school education. Members of the Mosely Commission admired the liberality of the Americans in support of high schools. Proud as I am of being a loyal subject of Edward VII., I prefer a system of free secondary schools as prevails in the United States to the system in England which is practically out of reach of the masses of the people.

Education is essentially democratic and should inculcate the unity of all classes. The elevation of the masses must be a fundamental object in a country like Canada. All civilizing agencies should especially tend to benefit the poor, to elevate the downtrodden; and to restore the wicked. The school, like the church, should be primarily interested in those who need help. Every useful faculty possessed by any member of the community should be utilized for the benefit of society. On this continent the danger from plutocracy must be avoided. Natural ability is fortunately not confined to a few favored families. The wind of genius bloweth where it listeth. Efficiency is more frequently the product of industry than inherited talent. Our leaders in science, in literature, as well as in law and divinity, have not always been sons of wealthy parents. More frequently they received their first impulses towards

distinction in some backwood school where they obtained an elementary education in the moments snatched from heavy duties, or in the better equipped urban school where the poorly paid mechanic is enabled to give his children advantages which will enable them to cope with the more favored boys and girls who come from homes of luxury.

TEACHERS.

In Ontario we recognize as people do elsewhere that the teacher is the most important factor in education. With us, all teachers must be trained not only academically but professionally. The standard for first class certificates is high, calling for a fair amount of scholarship, good professional training and at least two years' experience. To obtain the highest grade of a teacher's certificate in a secondary school calls for honour university graduation with specialists' standing, and at least three years' successful experience. We have for many years separated the professional course in a teacher's training from what is non-professional or academic. The wisdom of this policy is recognized. Its weakness we are now removing by lengthening the Normal School course in order to give an opportunity for review in academic work. So far as concerns the qualifications of first class teachers and high school teachers I think Ontario is in advance of many other countries. Indeed our high schools form the most efficient part of our entire educational system, and for various reasons. Our weakness in the primary schools, and it is a very great weakness, is due to the fact that we give practically the same value to a third class certificate that we do to one of the first class. A teacher with the lowest grade of certificate, just fresh from a county model school is legally qualified for almost every position in our Public Schools. He thus competes with one who has a first-class certificate, and who may have had several years experience. The school board also draws just as large legislative aid for a third class teacher as it does for one with the highest qualifications. The result is inevitable. Teachers have too little encouragement to remain in the profession.

Our teachers are favored by having officers to supervise their work who hold the highest grade of certificates. Our inspectors must be honour graduates; must hold first class certificates; and must have at least five years' experience as teachers. In the matter of qualifications of our inspectors, I think Ontario has no reason to

take a second place. The weakness arises from conditions I have already mentioned, but more especially from the fact that many of these officers have as high as one hundred and fifty schools. It is quite evident proper supervision cannot be secured with so much work. The duty of an inspector is not so much that of gathering statistics or assuming the position of a good detective, as that of inspiring the teacher to higher ideals, and appearing to them as a model of scholarship, pedagogical ability and high moral excellence. Proper inspection is impossible unless arrangements can be made, which I fear are not in sight, for limiting each inspector to eighty or one hundred teachers.

Our teachers—at least those having the best certificates—do, I think, in many respects, excellent work. Judged by written exercises where intellectual skill is required, the pupils in our schools are better taught, I think, than in schools in the United States. There is, however, more companionship noticeable on the other side between teacher and pupil. The American teacher employs to a less extent the driving process. He is more at ease in the performance of his work. In oral work I fear we are behind our neighbors. Pupils there are encouraged to speak out with more freedom in the class, and discuss subjects more in a conversational manner. Our examination system—not so bad as in England—the evils of which we are overcoming, has perhaps been partly the cause of the defect here mentioned. The American boy is better informed on general subjects, though his scholarship is not quite so accurate as the one in Ontario.

The moral training given in our schools is on the whole, I believe, fully as high as in any other country. The religious question does not give us, except when it gets into politics, much trouble. We regard religion as the basis of morality, but we do not hold that religion should be taught in our Public Schools. Any defects in moral training are not due, as some appear to think, to the absence of Bible teaching. What we need is not more formal instruction in ethics but better teaching? The good teacher is the one who is the best disciplinarian. Pupils taught on sound pedagogical principles acquire habits of neatness, industry, perseverance, thrift, and self-control. Those who call for religious instruction in our schools would render more service if they agitated for teachers of higher qualifications. The teacher with marked personality, well trained in education, and actuated by Christian principles will become a living epistle known and read by all his pupils.

UNIVERSITIES.

Our Provincial University is almost entirely sustained by the State. Fortunately for the advantage of education we have several private or denominational institutions. Each of these seats of learning has its place in our educational system. Their relations to the Provincial University are in the interests of all, becoming better understood and more harmonious. So long as they are not too pretentious in their efforts, and especially so long as they do not claim provincial support the situation will be fairly free from embarrassment.

At length Ontario is beginning to realize the value of its Provincial University in strengthening and directing all those forces which make for national prosperity. For many years the friends of Toronto University hoped for more generous financial support than it received from the Legislature. Why was such apathy shown? I think the causes were mainly three in number. (1) Denominational universities formerly opposed state aid to the Provincial University unless they also received a share from the public treasury. Happily federation has practically solved the difficulty. It is found that the church and the state may co-operate for the general good without departing from cherished principles. (2) A greater obstacle in securing popular sympathy for higher education is the disposition so often shown to adhere to old theories as to the subjects of the curriculum. Universities are generally conservative. It is well that such should be the case. The authorities of universities have wisely, in the interests of these institutions, more than once found it poor policy to stand on stilts. A consideration of the needs of the high schools, and especially of the public schools, has broadened courses of study. The spirit of Harvard, Columbia, Chicago, Michigan, and other American universities has at length been regarded as not unworthy of educationists on this side of the line. The growth of practical views does not mean inroads upon the humanities. No subject of the curriculum has a monopoly of culture. Every branch taught in school or college should be utilitarian in the best sense of the term. (3) The third cause of apathy to university claims is the prevalence of the doctrine so often preached in Ontario that education beyond the public school should not be supported from public funds. It is difficult to expect citizens who will not support free high schools to believe in legislative aid for those who desire a university course. This is the greatest obstacle now in the

way of assistance to higher education. The graduates of all universities could do much towards breaking down this obstacle.

The university system of Ontario has characteristics for which it is indebted largely to Great Britain, slightly to Germany, and to a considerable extent to the United States. The personal culture secured at Oxford and Cambridge is valued. Research work for which German universities are distinguished is encouraged so far as our means will allow. Our strenuous and complex times have created ideals which may be deemed practical. Our Provincial University has been established by the people and sustained for their good. It may be expected that it will rise in power and usefulness with the rise of intelligence and wealth. It now concerns itself not only with the development of the professions but also with the general intellectual welfare of the country. Every citizen has a stake in this institution, and each citizen has a right to criticize its policy. All our universities are doing a noble work, and their prosperity is sure to bring prosperity to the whole country.

I am very optimistic as to the future of higher education in Ontario. The difficulties to which I have referred it is hoped will disappear. There is no danger of a surplus of education. If our graduates are educated men, and not mere scholars, we cannot have too many of them. There is no political party that is not prepared to stand by the Provincial University whatever differences there may be respecting courses of study. The foundation and the copestone are alike necessary to the educational structure. In the minds of those who have the true conception of education and who understand the proper relations between the several steps of the ladder of learning, there can be no conflict of interests. The forces that are to develop the nation may be expected to come from above. The universities should however, always keep in mind the interests of those who are low down, even in the ditch.

THE OUTLOOK.

What I have said barely refers to some leading features of our educational system. Much might have been mentioned of an encouraging character as to our progress in school accommodation, equipment, libraries, organization and general administration. For several years kindergartens have been made a feature of our elementary schools, and practical science has had a place in university education. More recently we have made technical education a part

of our school course. We are not insensible to educational movements in other countries.

Our great need is a more lively interest in all matters pertaining to education. Perhaps we are not much worse in this respect than many others. I should hope we may realize in the not distant future a more liberal expenditure for schools and colleges. Teachers of higher qualifications are needed, and it is in vain to look for much improvement unless better salaries are paid. The money expended for education should be doubled. Expenditures for our schools all over the Dominion will do more for Canada than transcontinental railways or preferential tariffs. English statesmen have lately pointed to the unique position of Germany in the development of manufactures, and have referred to the improved training given in German schools as the cause. The views of Lord Roseberry, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain and other British statesmen as to the changed kind of education which changed conditions have forced upon us, should be taken to heart. Much is said as to the respective advantages of free trade and protection in view of our competition with our neighbors to the south of us. I venture to say our cities cannot hope to hold their own if expenditures for education are not as liberal as in the case of cities on the other side. To train a favored few should not be our aim. On the walls of that magnificent building at Washington, the new library of Congress, are inscribed many choice mottoes from the great men of all ages. One of them particularly arrested my attention. It is as follows: "Give instruction to those who cannot procure it for themselves." I would like to see this motto placed over the door of every high school throughout our broad Dominions.

I should like to see a firm belief among our people that the education of the masses is the most important question for Canada. We need an education which will equip every man and woman with power to do the best things in life. Education should be secured to the remotest settler in Province or territory, and given freely to the humblest dweller in all our cities. The stately avenue and the degraded slum alike need its elevating and softening influence. We want such an education as will give every child full opportunity to develop the gifts with which God has endowed him. In this way we may hope to find him rise in perfect manhood, and to secure that genuine culture which may be enjoyed in hovel as well as mansion.

Patriotism should be made a prominent feature of that training

given in every school or college. Every boy or girl should be taught the grandeur, the glory and the privilege of being a British subject. Right views of citizenship should be inculcated. On Empire Day our orators should not make their principal theme "Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori." The pupils of our schools should be taught that righteousness has done more for the nation than gunpowder, and that the industrious mechanic, artisan or farmer, may be as much deserving of praise as the one who enlists as a soldier to fight in South Africa. Boys and girls should be taught their capabilities, given the power to grasp opportunities, to cherish worthy ambitions, to understand their limitations, and trained to endure adverse fortune, as well as to exhibit courage or fortitude. They should be taught to help themselves, and to take their part in increasing the happiness of others. They should be taught habits of thrift, temperance, truthfulness and honesty. They should learn to avoid shiftlessness, dissipation or intrigue. They should be taught the dignity of labor, the value of money, and the proper relationship of one class of people to another. If the pupils in our schools learn to live honestly and satisfactorily, exercise diligence and economy, understand that poverty is not a crime, we may have much hope of the future. To secure all this the Canadian people must understand the power of education, and must be prepared to secure teachers of such a strong personality and high qualification as will guarantee the results I have just enumerated.

What avails our unparalleled area of available agricultural lands, our timber and mineral wealth, our valuable fisheries, and our magnificent water courses and water power, if adequate measures are not taken to develop the minds of those who are to control and direct our resources. What reason have we to pride ourselves on that long line of illustrious statesmen, scholars, soldiers and ministers of the gospel, who have contributed their share to the stability, progress and grandeur of the British nation, if through an indifference to the silent forces of education we ignore those fundamental principles which have given us our happy heritage? I should hope that at this meeting influences may be set in motion which will be felt for good in every part of our Dominion from the Atlantic to the Pacific. I should hope that in this rapidly growing city of the prairies—a city which has received much valuable blood from the older provinces—a city which from its geographical position and the power of its enterprising population has a great future before it—there may

issue from this convention such a call for greater educational effort as may mark this occasion as the dawn of brighter days in Canadian development.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS IN CANADA, WITH CONVEYANCE OF DISTANT PUPILS.

A. H. MacKay, B.A., B.Sc., LL.D., F.R.S.C.

(Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.)

(Read by Principal E. J. Lay.)

The present date is a little too early for anything more than a provisional paper; for the important experiments started to solve the problem in each of the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Ontario, under the stimulation of Professor James W. Robertson, LL.D., who is the director of the funds donated by Sir William C. Macdonald for the purpose, have scarcely been started except in Nova Scotia; and there even, the year is hardly yet completed. Estimates must therefore be used instead of the exact figures in several items. The only doubtful element is the possibility of managing the cost of the necessary conveyance of the distant pupils, so as to bring the great advantages of the plan within the realm of the practicable when considered by the ratepayers in annual meeting assembled. I can state briefly, however, what a year's work has revealed in Nova Scotia; what the estimate is for Prince Edward Island next year; and what has been done without any aid in one school section in Assiniboia. Within a few weeks I might be able to present the exact figures for Nova Scotia for last year, and a close estimate of the total expense for next year; as well as the estimates for the next year in the remaining Provinces. A more detailed statement of the Nova Scotian experiment can be seen in the Education Report of that Province for the year 1903, beginning at page xxv; and in its supplement the April Journal of Education, 1904.

Dr. Robertson selected a group of school sections at Middleton, Annapolis County, to test the ratio between cost and efficiency of the largest suggested consolidation. The normal school-section in Nova Scotia, is an area about four miles in diameter, with the

school house near the centre. The central constituent of the consolidated section is the small town of Middleton, having an assessable property valued at about $200,000, three teachers and 130 pupils. By Act of Parliament the seven neighboring school sections are for three years united with the central section, and obligated to raise by local taxation, at least the average of the school expenditure for the previous three years; Sir William C. Macdonald to meet all the additional expense. The seven sections brought in about $300,000 of assessable property, and seven small schools with one teacher each, and an average of 34 pupils each. The eight sections are governed by a board consisting of a representative elected from each constituent section for each teacher previously employed. The Act went into operation on the first day of the school year, the first of August. The school opened about the first of September, before the central building was completed, necessitating the renting of halls and their temporary fitting up for school purposes. The new building was not opened or occupied until the first of February, so that for the first half of the school year the attractiveness of the experiment was handicapped by very defective class-room accommodation, as well as by the first contact of the conveyance system with winter conditions, and the extemporization of winter vans, when they became necessary. Photogravures of the summer and winter vans are shown herewith. The former were imported from Ottawa at a cost of about $189 apiece, the latter were built at Middleton at an average cost of $53 each. Of the eleven summer vans, nine were twelve feet long, one ten feet long, and one eight; and during a portion of the year a twelfth van had to be used—for about eleven weeks.

It was thought before actual trial, that the bodies of the summer vans could be easily transferred from wheels to runners, when there would be snow for sleighing. But the bodies of the vans made at Ottawa were so heavy, that it was found impossible for the several drivers to change them at their homes, where many of them could not obtain either appliances or help enough for the lifting. And as sleighing weather is rather uncertain in our winters the changes might be required to be made often within a few weeks. It was decided that the winter vans should be complete in themselves; and the bodies were covered with canvas, which when painted proved quite effective from an aesthetic as well as from a practical point of view.

During the last half of the school year the institution was running regularly in the new buildings, with the equipment essentially complete, except for the Domestic Science department, which although now provided, will not be opened until the beginning of next school year, the end of next month.

The Macdonald building itself is of brick trimmed with stone, containing eight large class rooms on the first and second floors; an asphalt basement with playrooms for boys and girls during wet weather; superior heating and ventilation supplying without defect every portion of the building; water supply and hose attachment for protection from fire; a general convocation room in the attic with exterior fire escape; and the usual suite of cloak rooms for each class room; physical laboratory, library, teachers' and principal's rooms. The old building on the grounds near by was thoroughly transformed, heated and ventilated from the basement, its four departments being converted into a suite of rooms for practical science work with the most modern equipment. They are respectively, the Mechanic Science room, the Domestic Science room, the Chemical Laboratory, and a large auxiliary class room.

The school grounds are ample, containing the ornamental lawns around the buildings, the play grounds, and a large area for school garden purposes, which has already been most successfully developed. Near by is a stable shelter for twelve vans and their horses. The construction and equipment complete, including the vans, buildings and grounds, cost in round numbers $26,000, apart from the regular running expenses of the school for the year. But at present we are not concerned with the perfection of this equipment further than to note that it gives to the people of the consolidated section all the luxurious advantages which a large town or city can give in the way of school privileges; while the children can also enjoy the advantages of country homes and environment which city children cannot. The school equipment and the teachers employed, will always depend on what the people are willing to pay for them. All this information is common knowledge already at the service of those who wish to obtain it for their own schools.

The specially new element, and the essential one, is the practicability of the necessary conveyance of the more distant pupils at a tolerable cost to the ratepayers of rural districts; for this is an essential condition of an effective consolidation. Can consolidation be economically effected is the only question? For if it can be

the Middleton experiment has already demonstrated that the promised advantages will follow. The consolidated school house will be more comfortable and convenient for the pupils than separate school buildings totalling the same cost. The advantage of grading gives the pupils more of the teacher's time in teaching without increasing the cost. Better teachers can be engaged on account of the enlarging of the different classes, and the reduction of the number of teachers. The school equipment, instead of being a beggarly duplicate of the same elementary minimum for each "miscellaneous school" can, without any increased cost, be amplified to suit all grades. The sympathy of numbers comes in with its stimulating effect in all exercises, even into military drill and school garden work. If the consolidation is large it will also become possible to take advantage of the grants offered for instruction in Mechanic and Domestic Science. I close this paragraph by giving briefly some of the statistics of the consolidated sections at Middleton, the year before and the year after consolidation:—

Eight Middleton Sections.	1902-3.	1903-4.
Valuation of assessable property	$500,000	$500,000
Total school property (about)	$9,000	$35,000
Total running expenses (about)	$2,000	$10,000
Salaries of teachers (including grants)	$2,887	$4,640
Cost of conveying pupils	....	$5,472
Pupils enrolled	367	416
Average daily attendance	198	326
Percentage of pupils daily present	54	78
Cents on $100-rate of sectional taxation	40	35

The 35c. last mentioned above is the average of the minimum rate which the Act of Consolidation requires to be raised locally during each year of the three-year term. The Sir William C. Macdonald Fund supplies the balance of what would this year be a rate of 200 cents on the $100. Next year it is expected the cost of conveyance will be reduced. By the end of the experiment it is expected that the running expenses can be so reduced and the rate of taxation so reasonably increased that the people can carry on the school henceforward and forever, as effectively as to-day. As the advanced education given to-day in the school retains at home about sixty who would otherwise have to go abroad for their high school course, it can be seen that it will pay, from more than one consideration, to very largely increase the rate of local taxation which in this wealthy portion of the province has always been lower than elsewhere, and lower than it should have been, even under its previous conditions.

The Conveyance at Middleton, 1903.

The character of the vans has already been indicated. Drivers and horses had to be provided for eleven routes, to carry in all the pupils from the sections outside of the old section of Middleton, the boundaries of which extended about two miles from the central school. The agreement requires the conveyance of many pupils who are not over two miles away, and in other respects more than an equitable consideration has been given to some communities for the sake of a harmonious co-operation at the beginning. This element, together with the novelty of the industry of school van driving, and the general well-to-do character of the district, will explain why we can expect a reduction of cost in the future both here and in other districts. The contracts for driving, made in August last, although higher than they might be, and than they are elsewhere even when first tried, were considerably lower than it was at first feared they might be. Competition had its proper effect to a very satisfactory extent. The tenders just opened for next school year indicate a reduction of cost from about $26.77 to $23.56 per day for the school year of 200 days. The drivers still cost more than the teachers; and this is likely to continue so long as teams and drivers can find nothing to do from 9 to 4 o'clock each day.

When the tenders were being called for, in 1903, the following conditions were specified as governing the contracts:—

"(a) The vans must reach the Middleton school house not earlier than 8.30 a.m., nor later than 8.50 a.m.; and be ready to leave the school not more than five minutes after the time for the school to close each day.

"(b) Each van must be provided with a driver satisfactory to the school board; horses and harness, and rugs or robes.

"(c) Each van must carry all children over five years of age within the district assigned, and any others, who within the year may become entitled to the use of the vans by becoming permanent residents.

"(d) The driver, while the children are in the vans, must have the same care for their physical and moral welfare as the teacher has while they are in the schoolroom.

"(e) The vans must be free from dampness; and be comfortable when in use, and not be exposed to the weather when not in use; nor must they suffer damage beyond ordinary wear and tear

except at the cost of the contractor who shall be held responsible for any such damage.

"(f) Each contractor shall be bound to the amount of $500 by two approved sureties whose names shall be mentioned in the tender."

The following table is an abstract of the essential elements of the eleven routes and the approximate cost per day, according to the contracts made:

Route.	Appropriate Cost Per Day. 1903.	1904.	Length in Miles.	No. of Pupils.
1	$3 20	....	6	22
2	1 87	$4 50	4	21
3	1 50	1 49	2.5	11
4	2 95	2 55	5	28
5	1 69	1 50	2.5	22
6	2 74	2 58	5.7	22
7	3 00	2 47	5	22
8	2 50	1 99	5	25
9	2 12	2 12	5	22
10	2 20	1 99	4	24
11	3 00	2 37	5	18
Cost per day	$26 77	$23 56		

Prince Edward Island.

I have just learned from Mr. Theodore Ross, B.A., who is in charge of the Macdonald Nature Study work and Consolidation at Tryon, Prince Edward Island, that vans for the carrying of twenty-five children are being constructed which may cost little over $100 each. He also states that contracts have been made for the next school year for two routes at the following rates:

Lady Fane route	4.5 miles	$1.00 per day
West Tryon route	3 miles	.50 "

Should the Middleton rates be cut down to these figures it would reduce the present cost by over $3,000 and make conveyance quite practicable without any outside aid.

Assiniboia.

I learn from Miss Sarah E. Cox, a Nova Scotian teacher, who taught this present year at Wallace, near Yorkton in Assiniboia, that two school vans were used in her school, one of them carrying herself with the pupils to school each day during the winter. The school van is called there the "caboose" which, instead of running on good

roads has to follow trails through the prairie. The larger caboose conveying sixteen children was drawn by two horses, except in bad weather when four had been used. The smaller caboose carried eight including the teacher, and was drawn by two mules. The drivers unlike those of Middleton and Tryon above referred to, provided caboose and everything else necessary. The distance, load, and cost of the whole per day are shown below for comparison with the figures already tabulated:

Larger Caboose, route	5 miles,	carrying	16 pupils	.....	$1.45 per day.
Smaller Caboose, "	4½ "	"	7 "	and teacher....	.75 "

These figures seem to predict that within another year we shall find the cost of conveyance wherever it is deemed desirable, reduced much below the cost of the first attempt made in Nova Scotia.

Latest Legislation in Nova Scotia.

In this view, the Legislature of Nova Scotia and the Council of Public Instruction, have this spring made provision for the stimulation of the union of a small number of school sections wherever it can be accomplished. When two school sections have no more children than can be taught by one good teacher, there will be a saving of about $50 to the Provincial Aid fund, and of $25 to the Municipal Fund. The Inspector is authorized to arrange with parties in order to induce the union of such sections, to offer a sum less than that saved, to subsidize the conveyance of pupils who may be much beyond two miles from school, at least a portion of the way to school; or all the way in the morning, allowing them to return in the evening on foot; or in any other manner which may be found most convenient under the circumstances of the community. It is expected that this principle may be applied successfully to the union of two, three, or even more sections.

A grant of $36,000 has been authorized by the legislature, averaging $2,000 to each county, to stimulate consolidation with conveyance. It is suggested that $200 or $250 should be given to a consolidated group of sections for building or equipment, for every school section absorbed into the central one, up to a maximum of $1,000 for the first group in each county, until $2,000 for each county is appropriated. It is not considered good policy to offer any large inducements for the first consolidations, for if they are expected to pay without any outside aid, a large inducement should be un-

necessary. But there is no haste* in taking up this offer, although the success of consolidation in Australian provinces, and in the United States, has been brought to the attention of the Province, since the annual education report for 1898. This inertia on the part of the public is evidence of the necessity of some such act as the magnificent philanthropic donation of Sir William C. Macdonald, and the effective demonstration aided by it which is now being conducted by Dr. James W. Robertson.

* At date, Feb., 1905, *three* consolidations have been effected in the Island of Cape Breton under these conditions. Later information on all the points discussed above may be found in the publications of the Education Department of Nova Scotia, at Halifax.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Minutes of the Higher Education Section.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH.

A meeting of the Higher Education Section was held in the Collegiate Institute at 3 p.m. The President, Prof. Squair occupied the chair, and Mr. William Mowbray of Upper Canada College, was appointed Secretary.

The President, in his opening remarks, thanked those who had elected him to office three years ago, and continuing, referred to some of the difficulties of maintaining an Association in our country, where distances are so great, and conditions so various. He invited those present to express their opinions of the position and prospects of the Dominion Educational Association.

In the discussion of different phases of the question the following gentlemen took part:—Chancellor Burwash of Victoria University; Mr. John Millar, Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario; Principal Lay of Amherst, Nova Scotia; Mr. Knowlton of Vancouver, British Columbia; Mr. Newton and Mr. W. A. MacIntyre of Winnipeg, and Dr. Goggin, President of the Association.

The general opinion was that the Dominion Educational Association is worth all the labor and sacrifice which it demands from its members. Various methods of increasing the influence and usefulness of the Association were suggested, and in conclusion it was moved by Chancellor Burwash and seconded by Mr. Millar:

That this section instruct its President to bring before the General Committee the desirability of appealing to the associations of the different Provinces to encourage and assist the work of the Dominion Educational Association.—Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH.

The Higher Education Section assembled at 2 p.m. in the Collegiate Institute, and listened to the following programme of lectures:

"The Rhythmic Structure of English Verse," by Mr. William Houston, Toronto.

"The Free Public High Schools of the United States" by Prof. G. H. Locke, University of Chicago.

The Relation of Geology to the Teaching of Geography" by Prof. A. P. Coleman, University of Toronto.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH.

The section met in the Collegiate Institute at 2 p.m.

Dr. Goggin read a paper entitled "Ploughs, Furrows and Harrows" prepared by Prof. A. H. Young of Trinity University.

Mr. George Young, B.A., of Portage la Prairie, gave a lecture on "The High School Curriculum in its relation to the Adolescent."

The meeting then proceeded to the election of officers for the next meeting.

Moved by Mr. Houston and seconded by Mr. Young that Mr. R. A. Thompson, Vice-Principal of the Ontario Normal College, Hamilton, be elected President of the section.—Carried.

Moved by Mr. Hardy, seconded by Mr. Harris that Mr. Mowbray be elected Secretary.—Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

PLOWS, FURROWS, AND HARROWS.

PROFESSOR A. H. YOUNG, M.A.,
Trinity College, Toronto.

"The plowers plowed upon my back and made long furrows." This old verse from the Psalter, which probably gave to academic slang the examination term "to plow," might be taken as a text for the present occasion, which has nothing to do with agriculture and the implements thereof, appropriate though such a theme might be to a meeting held in the capital of our grain-growing province.

"Manitoba hard" has often been taken as symbolic of the sturdy character which every lover of this country wishes its people to possess. And character, literally, is but the furrow, or the furrows, plowed into us by the events of everyday and by the successive choices which those events compel us to make.

Unfortunately, there is reason to believe that Canadian character, whether taken generally or individually, does not measure up to the same standard as "Manitoba hard." Much plowing, therefore, and much harrowing must be done if the quality is to be improved; and the plowers must be all of those who have to do with rearing the rising generations.

Primarily, the work concerns those who bring children into the world, and, secondarily those to whom the latter are put to school.

If parents had wisdom enough and knowledge enough, they would be the best persons to train their children; and the work might be left to them alone. Knowledge they do not always possess in sufficient quantity, and wisdom is not infrequently lacking. Therefore professional teachers must, to a certain extent, take their place; and they, standing in the parents' stead, must not only impart knowledge, but, much more, instil wisdom to guide their pupils in after-life in the performance of duty, public and private.

The condition most vital to the proper performance of the teacher's task, given his fitness in every respect, is sympathy and cooperation on the part of the parents. Silly fathers and mothers foolishly criticize teachers in the presence of their children. In cases of

discipline they often side with the children rather than the teachers, to the hurt of the former.

Occasionally a school board, like that of Toronto, injudiciously, nay criminally, interposes its authority between the child on the one hand and the parents and teachers on the other. Children may be the best judges at times as to whether they deserve the strap or not. But those times are of very infrequent occurrence. If the children of Toronto were less seldom allowed to be the arbiters of their own fate in the matter of punishment, they would be much better behaved than they are, and Toronto would not have been held up to the derision of the whole Dominion the other month because of the unruly children's meeting held in connection with the centenary of the Bible Society.

Chastisement is no less grievous now than it was two thousand years ago; but now, as then, "it yields the peaceable fruits of righteousness to them who are exercised thereby"—if it be thoroughly and scientifically administered. And no humanitarian school board needs to fear that injustice will be done where parents and teacher are agreed as to the necessities of the case.

A good schoolmaster (or a good professor) regards his pupils as his children for the time being and he "watches over them as one who must give account." If parents realized this, if they always recognized the fact of human depravity in their own offspring as readily as in other people's, and if they supported the master, or, at least, were reasonable enough to enquire whether he were right or wrong, their children would gain far more by their school course than they now do.

We all like kindness that gets us out of difficulties when we are young, but we find in later life that the plowshare and the harrow's teeth are waiting to do their work upon those who have not begun in the school days to learn obedience, self-control, courtesy, serviceableness, and self-sacrifice. Kindness that prevents any one from learning these is unkindness of the cruelest variety, while unkindness so-called is the greatest possible kindness, if it promotes the growth of them, and if it is tempered with justice and mercy.

One of the most pernicious ideas cherished by Canadian parents of the present day is that they "will save their sons from having as hard a time as they themselves had when they were young." In their folly, they do not see that the very hardships contributed largely to make them the men and the women they are. The sons

(and the daughters) need the difficulties so that they may develop strength by overcoming them.

After all, who of us has been placed here to lead an easy life, "to have fun," or "a good time," as the boys and the young men of this country themselves express it? Surely they ought to be taught that this is downright selfish and anti-social, that selfishness is not the axis upon which the world revolves, and that, after conceding the right to incidental pleasure, relaxation, and the payment of wages, be they small or large, a man's satisfaction must come, not from what he gets out of life, but from what he puts into it, for other people as well as himself.

In Canada, as in England, we pride ourselves upon character-building, though any one who knows anything of the two countries must confess, to his shame, if he is a Canadian, that the older country is superior to ours in this respect. We talk about fair-play, but we know little about it in any of the relations of life as they have it in England.

Even in our games, some of which we fondly imagine we have borrowed in their entirety from England, we almost invariably play solely to win, without regard to the means by which we win. Offside play in football is justifiable if the referee does not see it. Such a thing would not be tolerated in England, for there the manner of winning the game is of as great importance as the winning itself. Here in Canada such things are not only condoned but even advocated by winners of cups and championships, in school and college series no less than in others.

The matter is no better when we come to the regular work of education so-called. Almost from the kindergarten to the end of the undergraduate course it turns upon the ever-recurring examination.

Examinations have their use, if they are strictly confined to their original intention,—if, as Goethe phrased it, "they test capacities and result in capacities." If they are diverted from their proper function, and if they are unnecessarily multiplied, they become an unmixed evil, not to be tolerated on any plea of necessity whatsoever. This they have become in Ontario, whatever else be true of other provinces.

"They are a necessary evil" is the stock excuse for continuing to make master and pupil waste time and groan under the galling yoke. Thus it is that masters, for fear of "losing their place" teach

for the examination and little else. If they do not pass a sufficient number of candidates, they do "lose their place," and a new teacher is "hired."

In this vocabulary no account is taken of the moral effects of the system, or of the fact that the master so lightly turned off ought to be the co-worker with the father and mother to make the sons and the daughters men and women useful to the country, of whom nobody shall have to feel ashamed, and not mere examination candidates able to come up to a certain standard.

If a man yields to the temptation to teach up—rather, down—to the examination, and not beyond, he is committing against childhood and youth one of the greatest crimes of which any man can be guilty. He may impart knowledge, and he may do so in attractive fashion, but he is not educating anybody. He assuredly is teaching his pupils to take the base, mercantile view of education and of all things else, which is the bane of Canadian life. At the very best, the pupil's minds are receptive only, and that is contrary to nature.

We probably all agree that education is the process of training the mental faculties, but in practice many of us throw definitions to the winds, and, thinking solely of the consequences of examination failures, we cram our pupils to the bursting point. The result of this is nausea, so far as the pupils are concerned, and a resolve to have done with the whole affair as soon as the education is "finished."

Usually the person whose education is "finished" is a conceited prig who has done well in some examination that has been set before him as the only worthy goal. Then the plowers of life begin to cut their furrows deep and the teeth of the harrow tear his back till he has learned that education is a process that continues as long as the life itself, and not the possession of a definite quantum of knowledge, be it never so valuable.

Education in this sense can never be described as "finished." Would that every school boy could learn that truth in the class room so thoroughly that he should never forget it. So he would, if his parents and teachers were not keeping their eye constantly on the examination results, but instead were really trying to make a man of him.

Preachers may preach against materialism as much as they like, and fathers may strive to impress upon their sons the desirableness and the beauty of things spiritual till the sons arrive at years of

discretion, but, so long as success is the only goal set before them for at least five days of the week, the sermons and admonitions will fail of their effect. "Be a success, or make up your mind to be looked down upon" is the maxim of most homes and of most schools. The means by which one is to become a success and the idea of rendering service are very minor considerations, if they are not allowed to drop out of sight altogether.

No man ought to fail in the work to which he lays his hand, if failure can be avoided. Things beyond his own control may cause him to fail, but, if he has striven well, he deserves as much praise as if he had accomplished that upon which he had set his heart. In any case, it is sometimes useful to have it proved by a failure that a given thing cannot be done.

The present examination system does not bring into play considerations such as these. Proper examinations would put a premium on genuine work rather than upon cram. Time would then be taken to make pupils observe carefully the right spellings of words, familiarize themselves with the principles of mathematics, and learn how to write correctly in the several languages that find their place in curriculums. Now, because of the pressure put upon masters and pupils alike, and because also of the demand made by parents that their children shall "get their education" in a shorter time than that operation requires, spelling is atrocious, mathematical problems are "funked," if they do not bear some resemblance to those done for them (not by them) in class, and composition in any of the languages (our own included) is impossible, if accuracy is still to be regarded as a desideratum.

Surely thoroughness of work and honesty of effort are of prime importance. Surely, too, the patience exercised in arriving independently at the solution of a problem is of far more importance than any quantity of examination success attained by cram. And cram covers everything done for a pupil which he can do for himself. In any country, but especially in one so young as Canada, self-reliance and ability to take the initiative are a necessary part of a man's outfit for life. They cannot be found where cram is the order of the day.

In older days wholesome discipline made it necessary for school boys and college students to take their several examinations as a whole, and not piecemeal. As life makes similar demands upon us, the rule, hard though it was, gave admirable training by its applica-

tion. Later on, division of examinations (as, for instance, the Junior Matriculation in Ontario for several years) and supplementals grew out of the mawkish sentimentality and pseudo-humanitarianism of the closing part of the nineteenth century, if not out of the fear of losing students, a motive far more unworthy than the others even. The consequence has been an ever-increasing number of candidates at the supplementals and a corresponding desire to get round the requirements by easy methods, if not to evade them altogether.

Old-fashioned people used to believe that there were no second chances in either this life or the next. Colleges have instituted one in the guise of the supplemental, even though it is rare for a man to be given such in any of the other relations of life. If he is given the second chance, he generally does like the college student, —he fails outright or he makes such a poor use of it as to become a burden to himself and to everybody with whom he has to do.

To the ordinary supplemental there has now been added the system of stars which allows a man to keep on trying a weak subject over and over again till he manages at last to dispose of it, or, more generally, to weary the patience of the examiner or to work upon his culpably exercised kindness of heart. The first supplemental was bad enough, but this new invention proceeds from the Arch-fiend himself, because he knows the weakness and the laziness of men.

No college authorities, if they possess any sense of the responsibility resting upon them, ought so to frame and administer their laws as to delude the men under their care into the belief that the duty neglected or postponed can be as well performed at some time other than the one originally set. To train them to be useful citizens, the laws of life should be reproduced in college, and prompt, unflinching discharge of obligations of every kind at the time first set should be not only encouraged but insisted upon.

Unfortunately, the new order of things in some colleges permits a man to go on to his higher year, if in the lower he has passed in the majority of his subjects. Pedagogically (using the word in its narrower sense) this plan is indefensible. Morally (and education to be at all worthy of the name must be moral) it is deserving of the utmost condemnation, in that it weakens those who are allowed to avail themselves of it.

The assertion is frequently made that, without an examination

to pass at the end of the year, undergraduates would not study. That some of them work only because the examination is prescribed, I freely admit. But I deny that the statement applies to the student body of any college as a whole. The degree in which it so applies depends more upon the professors than it does upon the students.

Experience and observation, as undergraduate and as teacher, both lead me to believe firmly that young men want to learn things and want to develop their minds and their spirits quite as much as their bodies. Give them the benefit of sympathetic guidance, good lectures, and, if need be, wise compulsion, and they will work as though their lives were at stake. And the work will be of a quality that will delight the soul of the instructor to a degree unusual, if not impossible, under the highly artificial examination system as we know it and the deadening, mechanical requirement of attendance at lectures.

The correlative of compulsory attendance at lectures ought to be the delivery of the very best that can be given. Unhappy is the undergraduate who has to endure the torment of a perfunctory performance at the professorial desk—unless, perchance, he contrives by the aid of the old Adam, to make the author of the torment yet more uncomfortable than himself. I must confess to a deep sympathy with the man whose college compels him to keep term by listening to unprofitable lectures.

Memory often recalls the fact that I was trained in a college where we were so far left to ourselves that the indolent and the incapable members of the staff were seldom troubled by our presence, or we by theirs. Life is too short for the unnecessary infliction of torment, or for the discourtesy that is likely to be offered from both sides, if attendance upon poor lectures is enforced.

There is no need to enlarge upon the ethics of the money question involved. The student pays for lectures and he has a right to expect them to be of the best possible quality, just as if he were purchasing any other commodity. If they are not, his moral standard is likely to be lowered, and he himself may therefore become just so much the more an immoral influence after graduation.

"I am just as good as you" was long regarded in the United States as the proper attitude for one individual to assume toward all others he might meet. The same watchword seems to be reflected in the brusqueness and the general crudeness of Anglo-Cana-

dian manners, for the French-Canadians must be excepted from the charge.

Whether this undesirable mental attitude, which implies inferiority in him who assumes it, is due to the so-called Americanizing influence which periodically sends English newspapers and their readers into hysterics, I cannot say. The Americans, so far as can be judged from outward show are ashamed of it all, as witness, among other things, the "Yes ma'am" and "Yes sir," which are heard on every side.

I have heard, and on trustworthy authority, that the principal of one of the foremost Collegiate Institutes in Ontario will not allow his pupils to say "Yes sir" to him, alleging that they are as good as he is. If he had been grounded in the Shorter Catechism, he would have learned that the fifth commandment requires proper deference and consideration to be manifested towards equals no less than toward superiors and inferiors.

School boys do not believe in equality, whereas they do shew great respect for superiors who are really such. Therefore a man is a fool, if nothing worse, who fails to take hold of the innate tendency to hero-worship that is found in every healthy boy, and to train it to proper respect for rightly constituted authority, dignitaries of church and state, men of advanced years, their equals, and their inferiors.

This very summer the Synod of Huron discussed this question of the rudeness and lack of respect exhibited by Ontario youth. Much that was beside the mark was said, as well as much that was true. A clergyman of my acquaintance said most sensibly: "The boys and girls of this country, if treated courteously, shew courtesy." He, like Robert Louis Stevenson, is no advocate of the rights of "crabbed age" as opposed to those of youth. But he does understand that those who are set over young people must set them an example of courtesy and all other good things, while they rule them.

Courtesy and other like things are not tested by examinations. Because of this and, possibly, because of the fact that teachers are not assigned their rightful position of co-workers with parents, we have become, outwardly at least, one of the most discourteous peoples in the civilized world, notwithstanding the goodness of heart and the spirit of helpfulness to be found on every side. How ill we compare with other nations, I again felt keenly the other month on my return from a long sojourn abroad.

The cure for this and other evils referred to here lies in the hands of us teachers, in whatever grade our work may lie. We may, or we may not, favour biblical teaching, which I myself should advocate, but we must regard education as a moral, and not a merely mental, process. Much less must we give way to the temptation of the bread-and-butter argument to descend to cram methods in our teaching. As we have examinations, let us reckon with them as we do with other disagreeable facts of life, and let us make them subserve moral ends in training men to be useful, courteous, honest, thorough, and strong. Then we shall be workmen who need not be ashamed. No plowman whom I have known was ever ashamed of plowing a good, straight furrow. And plowmen we are if we are really trying to "build character" and are not making a pretence and a sham of the whole of our work.

THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ITS RELATION TO THE ADOLESCENT.

George Young, B.A., Portage la Prairie, Man.

Principal Collegiate Institute.

Many volumes have been written and much energy has been spent by educationalists in our own provinces and by those on the other side of the boundary, in trying to devise an ideal curriculum for High Schools and Collegiate Institutes; science men are contending for the utilities, classical men for the humanities, and the mathematician for the disciplinary value of the mathematical group. The contest has been keen, so keen that we fear the scientist and the linguist, by placing undue emphasis upon science and classics, may divert the attention of our High School teachers away from that part of the High School course, which is just as important and just as essential as the traditional course for the development of the adolescent during the period of his High School career.

Every High School curriculum has two parts,—the written and the unwritten. The written contains specified subjects on which the candidates are examined, upon which the inspectors base

their reports and through which the reputation of a High School is too often secured. The unwritten part contains no specified subjects, is not even a bonus on the examination test, and very seldom appears in the report of the inspector. It is this unwritten part of the school curriculum in its relation to the adolescent that I wish to place in the foreview of my fellow-teachers this afternoon.

The age of adolescence is a dreamy age; the boys and girls in the High School are dreaming of future greatness and are just ready to grapple with those important problems connected with life's pursuits and life's interests. Listen to their mock parliaments. Nothing delights a boy so much as to be chosen premier, or to be given a portfolio in the cabinet, and why? Because he sees in this mock political role that it is quite possible for his dreams to be realized in the world's affairs to-morrow.

In literature as well as in human life we can trace an adolescent period and see its effects. Prior to the Elizabethan age old world expansion and new world exploration stirred the nation till it saw untold possibilities in every direction, felt its youth in every vein and was fired with new hopes, new ambitions and new ideals—we know with what result. Just as this adolescent period in English literature produced the Elizabethan age and gave us the literary standards of to-day so, I believe, the adolescents in our intermediate and High Schools and Collegiate Institutes will if quickened to new life make records for themselves in a world much larger than the institution from which they received the inspiration.

If then, the adolescent is to be an important factor in civilization, how shall we deal with him in his High School course. The answer to this question will be determined largely by the aim of your High School. You may devote your energies entirely to the written part of the High School course, you may treat the adolescent like a slave by overwork, you may interfere with his health by examination pressure, you may make him anti-social by excluding him from his fellows and you may deaden his aspirations by making him a recluse; and after his four year's course is completed in your High School you may graduate him from your institution and label him scholarship one hundred per cent., minus manhood, minus culture. On the other hand if you are concerned with the adolescent's future welfare you may point him to the unwritten part of the school curriculum, you may quicken his dormant possibilities by showing him that it is only by concentration of energy

and dogged determination to overcome difficulties in his work that his dreams will be converted into actualities. You may give him a better physical development and an insight into the group activity or the principle of co-operation, by allowing him time to handle a hockey-stick, to swing the bat or chase the pigskin. By placing him occasionally in a social environment you may lead him to see that units of Latin, mathematics and science, *no matter how well-proportioned* will never produce the man that the world is looking for, and since he eats for one, drinks for one, and sleeps for one, that he must count for one in an institute that demands as a condition of graduation, manly qualities and refined feelings as well as a developed intellect. When his four years' course has been completed you will turn out into the world a manly youth, with average scholarship it may be, but one who has it in him to be or to do something great, and one who will always feel indebted to the educational institution which cleared his vision, fixed his aim, stimulated his enthusiasm and sustained him amid the difficulties which beset the adolescent in his High School career. The cry goes out for manly young men. At the counter, in the army, at the bar, and especially in the pulpit and in the teaching profession the demand is for men. The world has a standing advertisement over the door of every profession, every occupation and every calling:—

> "Wanted—men;
> Not systems fit and wise,
> Not faiths with rigid eyes,
> Not wealth in mountain piles,
> Not power with gracious smiles,
> Not even the potent pen.
> Wanted—men."

Can we answer this advertisement? Are we teachers in an institution that is graduating self-centered memory-pouches to step into important positions in mercantile and professional life, or are we genuine educators in an institution that is developing manly men and womanly women, one that teaches our boys and girls that each has a work to do in the world, one that helps each to find his life work and shows him how to be successful and happy in that work. Here is a problem so urgent that we must meet it and wrestle with it, and if we are convinced that to produce strong, vigorous men

and women able to walk alone, is the mission of education, then truly the greatest need of adolescence to-day is to have powerful, masterful, manly teachers in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

It is true that much can be done for the adolescent in the choice of subjects. Some subjects of the High School curriculum are more suitable than others to meet his needs. A youth at this age is interested chiefly in the dash and movement of things. He wants something that has "go" in it and hence the man of action is his ideal. Is it any wonder then that we find it difficult to inspire our youths and to give them the moral uplift when the source of the inspiration is Genung's Rhetoric and Clement's Canadian History. Take your adolescents into the atmosphere of biography and give them a glimpse at such characters as Helen Keller, Nelson, Booker T. Washington or Cecil Rhodes.

The dramatic career of Nelson will appeal to some of your students. Nelson on the quarter-deck, Wellington on the field of battle, and Pitt in the cabinet formed a trinity to face the arch-planner Napoleon, who had all but touched success. In the sea-chase on the Mediterranean, Nelson is the hunter and Napoleon the quarry. The French fleet is anchored in Toulon closely watched by Nelson. A storm destroys Nelson's frigates, the eyes and ears of his fleet. The French fleet slips out, skirts the coast of Corsica, plunders Malta and sails on to Egypt. Nelson is in hot pursuit; he lands at Naples, but hears nothing of Bonaparte's fleet. He continues his voyage with full sail, and in his haste amid darkness and vapor he actually passes through the centre of Napoleon's convoy, lands at Alexandria and finds the port empty. Immediately he turns his vessels into the teeth of the westerly winds and in a zig-zag course makes his way back to Sicily. From the citizens of Syracuse he learns that Napoleon has gone east. Again he turns his face eastward and with full sail soon sights the masts of the French fleet in Aboukir Bay, where he catches his prey. The French fleet is drawn up like a string of beads and every bead a battleship. Nelson's plans are all matured for he fought with brains as well as with bullets. He dashes into the midst of the French fleet and captures all the vessels except two.

The lives of Helen Keller and Booker T. Washington are suggestive, and the life of action as illustrated in the career of Cecil Rhodes, who by his indomitable spirit and dogged perseverance was

enabled to deal in millions and think in empires, has a wonderful awakening power.

If these characters do not touch the life, increase and vary your biography and do not despair of success, for just as flint sometimes strikes flint without any result but, when the proper conditions exist, a spark is produced, so in your experience with the adolescent you may rest assured that the time will come when some one life will touch his life and a light never seen on sea or land will point out to him a new world of possibilities. Although biography can do much toward the development of the adolescent, yet its influence cannot be equal to the influence of the vigorous teacher. It is only the strong, vigorous teacher who knows how to make his teaching vital, who can produce among his adolescents the proper tone—that spirit which pervades every phase of school life, determines the attitude of pupil to teacher, pupil to pupil, and pupil to study, and is the most effectual means of suppressing boisterous boys, giggling girls, and sentimental Tommies.

We sometimes hear that the status of the High School is not equal to that of the private school, that a graduate from the High School has not the same social standing as a graduate from a private school. Does this idea prevail on account of a difference in the scholarship of the teachers or the quality of their work, or is it because the private school has recognized and emphasized the fact that the personality and the influence of living men and women are the potent factors in the training of the youth of our country?

If we believe that our boys and girls should not only be good but good for something, we ought to see to it, as far as lies within our power, that the teachers placed over them are not of the willless, soul-less, invertebrate type, weaklings who substitute for their creed:—

"This I have read in a book," he said, "and that was told to me,
And this I have thought that another man thought of a prince in Muscovy.
Oh, this I have felt, and this I have guessed, and this I have heard men say,
And this they wrote that another man wrote of a carl in Narroway."

There is no place in the teaching profession for naked souls that are white as a rain-washed bone; but what we do need for our adolescents is men of strong character, good ability, good social standing and wide culture, men who regard the curriculum as se-

condary, men who will not worry overmuch over respective merits of the ancient and modern languages, or the inherent values of scientific or humanistic study, but men who by their strong personality will strengthen and direct the will power of the adolescent, awaken him from his indifference, and by grafting new interests will give him a clutch on the vital issues of life—men, religious? Yes, if you wish, but yet men who voice their creed in:—

"Out of the night that covers me,
Black as the pit from pole to pole,
I thank whatever gods may be
For my unconquerable soul.

In the fell clutch of circumstance
I have not winced nor cried aloud,
Under the bludgeonings of chance
My head is bloody but unbowed.

Beyond this place of wrath and tears
Looms but the horror of the shade,
And yet the menace of the years
Finds and shall find me unafraid.

It matters not how straight the gate,
How charged with punishments the scroll,
I am the master of my fate,
I am the captain of my soul."

Truly, the greatest need of the adolescent to-day is the manly teacher.

THE RHYTHMIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH VERSE.

WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A., Toronto.

The aim of this paper is to explain and illustrate a method by which the real nature of rhythm in English verse may be clearly comprehended, and made subservient to the effective oral expression of the sense embodied in English poetry. So far as form and structure are concerned rhythm is, in the last analysis, the characteristic and essential feature of verse as distinguished from prose in the English language, and in such a discussion as this it must be assumed that, while "verse" and "poetry" are not interchangeable terms, no English composition is entitled to be called poetry that is not rhythmically and therefore regularly versified. Some prose approximates to poetry in choice of theme and mode of treatment; some poetry approximates to prose in irregular and capricious use of rhythm; both kinds of composition—illustrated respectively by the prose of Ruskin and the poetry of Walt Whitman—are here left out of consideration.

That there are other modes of adornment resorted to by poets I fully recognize. The most important of these is the use of "tone-colour" in the form of "rime," of what is conventionally called "alliteration," or of expressions in which the sound is said to be an "echo" or "suggestion" of the sense. All this I omit from this discussion not as uninteresting or unimportant, but as irrelevant, and for the same reason I refrain from dealing with what is called "poetic licence," whether in vocabulary, syntax, or rhetoric.

"Rhythm," in its widest sense, may be defined as "passing time marked by the recurrence of an event." It is perceptible by means of touch, sight, or hearing. The feeling of the pulse with the finger is for the purpose of discovering a mode of rhythm in which the recurring event is a beat caused by the muscular action of the heart. The swing of a pendulum and the recurrence of a specially brilliant phase of a variable beacon light are events perceived by the eye. A minute gun at sea, the tolling of a funeral bell on land, and a regularly recurring drum beat are rhythmic events discerned by the ear. In English verse the recurring event used to mark

passing time is an emphasized or accented syllable—not a word unless the word is monosyllabic. In all cases of rhythmic movement, however discerned, it is of the very essence of the rhythm that the passing time be divided into practically equal intervals. In verse each of these intervals is filled up with a "group" of syllables, of which one, and only one, must have a relatively or comparatively prominent accent.

If this account of the rhythmic movement of verse is correct it follows that rhythm may be expressed only by the voice and discerned only by the ear. It is not an attribute of written language, and its presence cannot be detected or established by the counting of written syllables. Sound is as necessary to the production of rhythm as it is essential to its detection, and in the case of verse it is the sound of the human voice addressed to the human ear. This truth was clearly perceived and felicitously expressed by Tennyson, who was an accurate observer of all kinds of physical phenomena, those of speaking and hearing included. In his beautifully artistic address to Virgil, whose poetry is perfectly and exquisitely rhythmical in its structure, he says :

> Now thy Forum roars no longer, fallen every purple Cæsar's dome—
> Tho' thine ocean-roll of rhythm sound for ever of Imperial Rome—
> I salute thee, Mantovano, I that loved thee since my day began,
> Wielder of the stateliest measure ever moulded by the lips of man.

Of any discourse the primary function is to express the thought of the author. If it fails to do this, it fails altogether. Whether in form it be prose or verse, no amount of eloquence or adornment will entitle it to appreciation if it does not express clearly and unmistakably the sense intended to be conveyed to the hearer or reader. This sense is gathered by a process of analysis carried on either unconsciously or intentionally. The analytical process reveals the logical structure of either prose or verse ; in the case of verse, when carried further, it reveals also the rhythmic structure. The scansion of a poem depends absolutely on its meaning and not in the slightest degree on anything else. The steps in the process of ascertaining and exhibiting the structure of verse are, therefore, interpretation, logical analysis, and rhythmic analysis. If the author has obviously violated the sense in order to secure effective rhythm he has sacrificed the substance for the form, and is unworthy of the name of "artist." The essence of poetry is not a mere succession of thoughts however impressive, or a mere rhetorical form however

graceful ; it is the embodiment of appropriate thoughts in beautiful form, where the art is so perfect as to conceal itself. Then only we have what has been aptly called "the witchery of consummate verse."

Various kinds of marks have been used to indicate the division of verse into rhythmic groups ; in the illustrations here given short upright lines are employed for the purpose. The poem on the burial of Sir John Moore is one of the most beautiful lyrics ever written, the rhythmic movement adapting itself to the variations of the thought with a felicity which makes itself felt but eludes description :—

Not a drum | was heard | not a funeral | note,
As his corse | to the rampart | we hurried;
Not a soldier | discharged | his farewell | shot
O'er the grave | where our hero | we buried.

We buried him | darkly | at dead | of night,
The sods | with our bayonets | turning,
By the struggling | moonbeam's | misty | light
And the lanterns | dimly | burning.

No useless | coffin | enclosed | his breast,
Nor in sheet | nor in shroud | we wound him ;
But he lay | like a warrior | taking | his rest,
With his martial | cloak | around him.

Few | and short | were the prayers | we said,
And we spoke not | a word | of sorrow;
But we steadfastly | gazed | on the face | of the dead,
And we bitterly | thought | of the morrow.

We thought | as we hollowed | his narrow | bed,
And smooth'd down | his lonely | pillow,
That the foe | and the stranger | would tread | o'er his head,
And we | far away | on the billow.

Lightly | they'll talk | of the spirit | that's gone,
And o'er | his cold ashes | upbraid him;
But little | he'll reck | if they let him | sleep on
In the grave | where a Briton | has laid him.

But half | of our heavy | task | was done
When the clock struck the hour for retiring ;
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe | was sullenly | firing.

Slowly | and sadly | we laid him | down
From the field | of his fame | fresh and gory;
We carved not | a line | and we raised not | a stone,
But we left him | alone | with his glory.

Equally appropriate is the rhythmic movement in Tennyson's two famous lyrics, the former on the death of a friend, the latter on his own approaching departure :—

Break | break | break,
  On thy cold | gray stones | O sea!
And I would | that my tongue | could utter
  The thoughts | that arise | in me.

O well | for the fisherman's | boy,
  That he shouts | with his sister | at play!
O well | for the sailor | lad,
  That he sings | in his boat | on the bay!

And the stately | ships | go on
  To their haven | under | the hill;
But O | for the touch | of a vanished | hand,
  And the sound | of a voice | that is still!

Break | break | break,
  At the foot | of thy crags | O sea!
But the tender | grace | of a day | that is dead
  Will never | come back | to me.

Sunset | and evening | star,
  And one | clear call | for me !
And | *may there be | no moaning | of | the bar
  When I | put out | to sea,

But such | a tide | as moving | seems | asleep,
  Too full | for sound | and foam,
When that | which drew | from out | the boundless | deep
  Turns | again | home.

Twilight | and evening | bell,
  And after | that | the dark!
And | *may there be | no sadness | of | farewell
  When I | embark!

For | tho' from out | our bourne | of time | and place
  The floods | may bear me | far,
I hope | to see | my Pilot | face | to face
  When I | have crost | the bar.

The inconvenience of this method of indicating rhythmic groups of syllables makes it desirable to find some neater and more expeditious system of notation. Discarding those commonly employed I prefer to use the first numeral and the cipher to

*There is room for difference of opinion as to whether the accent falls on "and" or on "may."

denote respectively the presence and absence of accent. As a matter of fact accent is never entirely absent from an uttered syllable, and therefore, strictly speaking, the numerals stand for syllables that receive more accent than those represented by ciphers. Substituting these conventional marks for accented and unaccented syllables, and separating rhythmic groups by commas, the first stanzas of the above three poems respectively may be represented graphically, as follows :

```
0 0 1,      0 1,      0 0 1 0 0,      1,
    0 0 1,      0 0 1 0,      0 1 0,
0 0 1 0,      0 1,      0 1 0,      1,
    0 0 1,      0 0 1 0,      0 1 0.

1,          1,          1,
    0 0 1,      0 1,      0 1,
0 0 1,      0 0 1,      0 1 0,
    0 1,      0 0 1,      0 1.

1 0,      0 1 0,      1,
    0 1,      0 1,      0 1,
1,      0 0 1,      0 1 0,      1,      0 1,
    0 1,      0 1,      0 1.
```

Byron was one of the great masters of English rhythm. The former of the subjoined stanzas is from "Childe Harold," the latter from "The destruction of Sennacherib" :—

There was | a sound | of revel | ry | by night,
And Belgium's | capi | tal | had gathered | then
Her beauty | and | her chival | ry, | and bright
The lamps | shone o'er | fair women | and | brave men;
A thousand | hearts | beat happi | ly, | and when*
Music | arose | with | its voluptuous | swell,
Soft eyes | look'd love | to eyes | that spake | again,
And all | went merry | as | a marriage | bell.
But hush! | hark! | a deep sound | strikes | like a rising | knell!

The Assyrian | came down | like the wolf | on the fold,
And his cohorts | were gleaming | in purple | and gold;
And the sheen | of his spears | was like stars | on the sea,
When the blue wave | rolls nightly | on deep | Galilee.

Represented by the conventional notation above described, these verses would appear thus :—

```
0 1,      0 1,      0 1 0,      1,      0 1,
0 1 0,      1 0,      1,      0 1 0,      1,
```

*Byron's rhythm is here defective as "when" is not accented.

```
0 1 0,      1,        0 1 0,      1,        0 1,
0 1,      0 1,        0 1 0,      1,        0 1,
0 1 0,      1,        0 1 0,      1,        0 1,
  1 0,    0 1,          1,      0 0 1 0 0,    1,
0 1,      0 1,        0 1,      0 1,        0 1,
0 1,      0 1 0,        1,      0 1 0,        1,
0 1,        1,        0 1 0,      1,      0 0 1 0,    1.

      0 0 1 0,    0 1,    0 0 1,    0 0 1,
      0 0 1 0,    0 1 0,    0 1 0,    0 1,
      0 0 1,    0 0 1,    0 0 1,    0 0 1,
      0 0 1 0,    0 1 0,    0 1,    0 0 1.
```

Without giving the texts of the following passages, all from Tennyson, I subjoin them as rhythmically represented by the conventional notation ;—

The first five verses of " Ulysses " :

```
0 1 0.    1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1,
0 1,    0 1,    0 1,    0 1 0,    1,
  1,  0 0 1 0,    1,    0 1,    0 1,
0 1 0,    1,    1 0,    0 1 0,    1,
0 1,    0 1,    0 1,    0 1 0,    1.
```

The first stanza of the song in " The Brook " :

```
0 1,    0 1,    0 1,    0 1,
    0 1,    0 1 0,    1 0,
0 1 0,    1,    0 1.    0 1,
    0 1 0,    1,    0 1 0.
```

The first stanza of " Locksley Hall " :

```
1 0,    1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1,    0 1,    0 1 0,    1,
1 0,    1,    1,    0 0 1 0,    1,    0 1,    0 1 0,    1.
```

The first stanza of " Locksley Hall sixty years after " :

```
1,    0 1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1,
1,    0 1,    0 1 0,    1 0,    1 0,    1 0,    1 0,    1.
```

The first stanza of " To Virgil " :

```
1 0,    1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1 0 0,    1 0,    1 0,    1,    0 1,
1 0 0,    1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1,    0 1 0,    1.
```

The first stanza of " Merlin and the Gleam " :

```
1,          0 1 0 0,
1,        0 0 1 0,
1 0,        0 1 0,
1,        0 0 1 0,
0 1,        0 1 0 0,
0 1,        0 1 0,
```

	1	0,		1	0,
0	1	0,		1	0,
	1	0,		1	0,
0	1	0.	0	1.	

So far as these illustrative passages go they afford a basis for the following dicta, which will on a wider induction be found to hold good of all artistically constructed English verse :

1. Each rhythmic group is either a logical group or a subdivision of one ; in other words, marks separating logical groups of words will be found to coincide with marks separating rhythmic groups of syllables, though there are fewer of them ; in still other words, rhythmic grouping depends on sense, just as logical grouping does, but rhythmic grouping, while in harmony with the sense, takes account also of another condition of structure.

2. This second condition is the regular recurrence of accents in such a way as to divide the expression of the thought into substantially equal intervals of time ; the resulting movement is the essence of " rhythm " in artistic verse, and is entirely absent in artistic prose.

3. There is one, and only one, accented syllable in each group, and so long as this is observed in utterance the unaccented syllables are left to be grouped according to the sense; obviously the division of a sense group is necessary when two accents fall within it, and this is true occasionally of a word, as some of the above illustrations show.

4. There are never more than two unaccented syllables between two accents, and therefore rhythmic groups cannot take any form except one of the following, of all of which specimens may be found in the passages analyzed above :

		1		
		1	0	
		1	0	0
	0	1		
0	0	1		
	0	1	0	
	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	
0	0	1	0	0

5. What is called " rapidity of movement," in poetry depends on the number of unaccented syllables in the different groups ; the more of these syllables in the verse the more " rapid " it will appear when uttered, though the lapse of time must remain the same for all the groups.

A brief reference to what I may call the "classical scansion," as distinguished from the "English scansion" I have been exhibiting, may shed further light on this question. It must be obvious to the most superficial observer that the former is largely divorced from logical interpretation, while the latter is based absolutely on the sense and helps to convey it. Occasionally the two scansions will be found to coincide, as in such monosyllabic verses as these:

And the sheen of his spears was like stars on the sea.
I am sick of the Hall and the hill, I am sick of the moor and the main.
The time draws near the birth of Christ.
That he sings in his boat on the bay.

It must be equally obvious that the practice of classical scansion tends to aggravate that peculiar monotony of expression which goes popularly by the name "sing-song," while the practice of English scansion tends to break it up without obscuring the rhythmic movement of the verse. It follows that the art of expressive reading may be greatly aided by the one kind of scansion, while it may be greatly hindered by the other.

The rhythmic analysis of English verse, so far from being a mere mechanical exercise, requires a constant intellectual effort. Before verse can be analyzed, it must be comprehended, for the scansion must harmonize with the sense. If there is a difference between the ways in which two persons mark the groups in a given passage, that should be taken as implying a corresponding difference between their interpretations of the text.

Lastly there are passages to be found in English poetry that are strictly rhythmical in movement, but incapable of being scanned according to classic rules; every such passage may be easily analyzed according to the system here explained. A good example is furnished by the following excerpt from the latter part of the second canto of Tennyson's "Princess":—

A classic | lecture, | rich | in senti | ment,
With scraps | of thundrous | Epic | lilted | out
By violet- | hooded | Doctors | eleg | ies,
And quoted | odes | and jewels | five-words | long
That | on the stretch'd | forefinger | of all | time
Sparkle | forever.

The fifth verse is perfectly and beautifully rhythmical, but it will not lend itself to the classical scansion.

W. A. McINTYRE, B.A.

INSPECTION AND TRAINING

Minutes of the Inspection and Training Section.

TUESDAY, JULY 26TH.

The first meeting of the Inspection and Training section of the Dominion Educational Association was held on Tuesday afternoon, July 26th, at 3 p.m., Dr. Harper in the chair. In the absence of the Secretary, Mr. D. McIntyre, Inspector Bryan of Calgary, was appointed to act as Secretary pro. tem.

The President, Dr. Harper, delivered an address in which he urged strongly the establishment of a Dominion Educational Bureau. Steps should be taken to have the influence of the Dominion Educational Association made active between sessions. He recognized that, at the present time, the establishment of such a bureau, was impossible, and suggested that, until its necessity was recognized by all the provinces, work along similar lines should be carried on by the Dominion Educational Association.

Principal Scott of Toronto expressed himself as strongly in favor of the establishment of a Dominion Educational Bureau for the collection of information in regard to the status of education in the different parts of the Dominion and in foreign countries. Such bureaus were in existence in the United States, Germany, Italy, and France, and had proved a great success. Principal McIntyre of Winnipeg thought the address worthy of careful consideration but was of the opinion that it should be considered by the full section. He recommended that it be submitted to a committee who should formulate a resolution for presentation to the general meeting.

A committee consisting of the following members was appointed: Dr. Harper, Mr. Scott, Mr. Barnes and Mr. Bryan.

The section adjourned to meet on Wednesday afternoon at 2 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH.

The second meeting of the Inspection and Training section of the Dominion Educational Association was held on Wednesday, July 27th at 2 p.m.

Inspector Bryan of Calgary read a paper on "Inspection as a Factor in Public Education." He dealt with the necessity of careful supervision of Schools. The work of the Inspector in relation to the Department, to the teacher, and to the district was outlined. The qualifications and remuneration of Inspectors were also discussed.

Messrs. Scott, Barnes, Perritt, and Lang took part in the discussion.

In the absence of Mr. C. Johanssen, Miss Peebles of Montreal read the paper prepared by him on "Three Years of Macdonald Manual Training Schools."

Manual Training had passed the experimental stage and would soon become part of primary education in all provinces of the Dominion. The introduction of Manual Training was the result of a desire for change in pedagogical ideals. Systems of education had proved to be too bookish and mechanical. The hand should supplement the eye and ear. Education was an all round development. The opponents of Manual Training were as a rule unacquainted with the system. The paper then dealt with the history of the movement in England and in Canada, and with the various types of work taken up. Manual training was important especially from the standpoint of moral training.

An interesting discussion followed in which Mr. McKee, Mr. W. Warters, Mr. Lynn, Dr. Harper, Mr. McIntyre, Mr. Lang, Mr. Scott, Mr. Millar and Mr. Bryan took part.

A paper was given by Dr. Harper on "The Normal School and its Function of Elimination" in which it was contended that in order to realize the best results from that institution there must be the greatest care taken to eliminate from the classes of the Normal School all students who indicate after a period of probation that they are never likely to be successful teachers. Dr. Harper gave an illustration of how this process of elimination had been made effectual in raising the standard of school work in the city of New York under the superintendency of Mr. Maxwell.

The section adjourned to meet again on Thursday July 28th, at 2 p.m.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH.

The third meeting of the Inspection and Training section was held on Thursday afternoon July 28th, at 2 p.m.

A paper on "Home Education" was read by Mr. A. Fitzpatrick,

secretary of the Home Extension and Reading Camp Association, Toronto. Mr. Fitzpatrick gave a short history of the movement and stated the purpose of the Association—to provide suitable reading matter and instruction for those engaged in mining and lumbering camps and fishing stations. The co-operation of the clergy, employers, educational associations and the public had been secured. Mr. Fitzpatrick's object, at the present time was to interest the Provincial Government in the matter.

It was decided to present a resolution before the full session of the Dominion Educational Association endorsing Mr. Fitzpatrick's work.

Mr. W. Scott, Principal of Normal School, Toronto, then read his paper on "Domsie—a Study of Scottish Education."

The secret of the success of the Scottish nation was due to the attention paid to education. Mr. Scott gave a short historical sketch of Scottish schools. The success of these schools was due to superior qualification and character of teachers, to prominence given to the Bible, to the recognition of the individuality of the scholars, and to the fairness of the system—rich and poor on the same plane.

The next item on the programme was a paper on "Some Functions of a Normal School" prepared by Mr. D. Soloan, Principal of Provincial Normal School, Truro, N.S., and read by Inspector Lang.

A round table conference on "The Making of a Teacher" led by Mr. W. A. McIntyre, Principal of Normal School, Winnipeg, then followed.

The following officers were elected:

President - - - -	Mr. S. E. Lang.
Vice-President - - - -	Mr. D. Soloan.
Secretary - - - -	Mr. Wm. Scott.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL AND ITS FUNCTION OF ELIMINATION.

J. M. Harper, LL.D., Quebec.

The normal school is but a modern institution. When it first surprised the world as an invention, it was heralded as other inventions have been, as a cure-all for the haphazard pedagogic methods of preceding generations. In days when the "adventure school" had its place in our towns and villages, the teacher knew no other foundation for his maturing methods than the chancy lines of imitation—graduating from common school, high school, or college, with no further insight into the "science of the thing" than what he had picked up from his own masters. When Stowe opened his training school in Glasgow, a new era in the history of education had already been inaugurated. Canada was not slow in joining the expectants, who claimed for the new *machina ex deo* the highest professional results, nay, even final racial results. Ryerson in Ontario and Forrester in Nova Scotia had few expectations from the school systems they established, except what might come from the *nuclei* of these systems respectively, namely, the Normal School of Toronto and the Normal School of Truro. And now, after all these years of experimentation, with four institutions of the kind in Ontario, three of them in Quebec, and one in each of the other provinces, the record of results has no word in it of the highest tidal mark having yet been reached in the placing of all our teachers in the rank of skilled operatives. The Mosley Commission reports that the appliances in Canada for the training of teachers are lamentably inadequate—a statement over which one of our college principals seems to have a kind of gloating regret, but over which the enthusiastic and disinterested patrons of education in Canada are likely to have but one solicitude, namely, as to what is the cause of this inadequacy, and what its remedy.

But, first of all, is the statement true? How many of the provinces of the Dominion allow the door of the common school to

remain open to the untrained teacher? None of our provinces put faith any longer in the "adventure teacher" as a safe manager of its public schools. A preliminary teacher's examination stands at the front door of each provincial system of public instruction, whatever may be the privileges at the side door. But in the matter of trained teachers, there are only three of the provinces that demand a previous normal school training for all their teachers; and, even in these three the rule is said to be not altogether absolute. Our provinces have, therefore, hardly yet been able to overtake, in actual practice, the original idea of a normal school in the full width of its purpose as a *machina ex deo.*

This, however, is very different from saying that the appliances of any of our normal schools are inadequate. Adequacy of opportunity is one thing; adequacy of appliances another. The most of our normal schools have the appliances necessary to make good their promise of preparing well-trained teachers—with their experienced staffs, their professional enthusiasm, their liberally supplied equipment for illustration and experimenting. Even if these be lacking anywhere, it would be out of place for any outsider to discuss the why and the wherefore. Each province must see to this matter for itself. But the much larger question remains. It is surely no impertinence to make inquiry why the examples of New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Manitoba have not been more closely followed by the other provinces, in this matter of placing their public schools in the hands of none but competently trained teachers. The enquiry is threefold in its scope: (1) Is it from lack of provincial resources; (2) Is it from lack of student-teachers; or (3) Is it on account of public indifference? The dilatoriness cannot surely be excused because some of our provinces are newer than others. An adequately equipped normal school is not any crowning of a system of public instruction: it is the corner-stone, and ought to be provided for in the earliest-laid foundation wall. The teacher makes the school, and the State must provide for the making of the teacher. There is no getting over that, as a primary obligation in any province. Nor can the holding of second place at the very start of the running of the various provinces, from a best normal school to the best system in the confederacy, be excused in any sufficient way on account of the lack of provincial resources. As a public enterprise of the highest importance, nay, of an importance more comprehensive of the developing welfare of a country than

any other enterprise can possibly be—a full normal school equipment cannot safely be overlooked in any province. Its neglect is criminally unpatriotic; and if there are provincial resources for the exploitation of railways and other great public projects, there must be found means, borrowed if you will, for striving after those racial results which the promoters of the first normal school had in their line of vision. Provincial aggrandisement, secured by the erection of expensive public works that last but for their day—dwindle into insignificance when placed alongside of the educational enterprises of race development, eternal in their results. Hence it may safely be maintained that as no provincial exchequer can ever be opened too liberally in behalf of education, it is a mean and beggarly insinuation against any province to say that the inadequacy of its normal school equipment to supply all its public schools with normal school trained teachers, can be traced to or excused on account of, its lack of resources.

And just as unkindly illogical is it to say that there are not student teachers sufficient to take advantage of a well-equipped normal school as a means—the only sure means—to the end of securing a place as teacher in our public schools. The poor salary expectations, it is said, stand in the way of our young men and women giving of their time and talents to school teaching; they cannot afford to go to the normal school. But is not this also a getting back to the question of provincial resources? If Prince Edward Island, the smallest of our provinces, finds the supply of trained teachers adequate to the demand; and, if Britain can provide an adequate subsidy to student-teachers while attending the normal school, there can surely be no sufficient reason why either the poorest or most populous community in the Empire should not be able to fill the benches of its normal school, and thus provide for a sufficient supply of competently trained teachers for its public schools.

The necessity of providing teachers with an adequate salary is only another phase of the question of provincial resources. Education is an affair of the State. The support of our schools and the supplying of them with competently trained and sufficiently remunerated teachers, I repeat, is a responsibility resting upon the State. The government of the day is the exponent of the State—embodiment of the voice of the people; and it is in the inclination of the people, developed along the right lines by those who would represent the public interest in Parliament, that we must finally

seek to locate the cause of any inadequacy in our appliances for the training and payment of teachers.

It may, therefore, safely be concluded that it is neither from the lack of provincial resources, nor from the natural disinclination of our young people to enter themselves as student-teachers, but from the indifference of the public, that the normal school has been curtailed in the wider provincial limits of its influence. There still lurks in the public mind the old notion that the teacher is born and not to be made. This opinion prevails for the most part in the country districts, where the *laisser aller* monotony of school-keeping, and not the careful scientifically-warranted teaching of the young is the desideratum. Even in its most enthusiastic pleadings, professionalism has been unable to root it out. Talk as we may in our conventions, it still remains, as if the only difference between a trained teacher and an untrained teacher is one of salary. So stubbornly does it persist as a retarding prejudice that, in presence of the lowering of salaries and the attendant scarcity of teachers, a pseudo-educationist has actually proposed to meet the difficulty backwards, by advising our school authorities to place our elementary schools in the hands of school girls and boys, who have not reached the final grade of the school curriculum.

The professionalism, which is a mere go-as-you-please, gives the notion that the teacher makes himself, further warrant, in its neglect of checks on the student's entering or leaving the normal school, and in the crowding out of practising in the class-room by an over-loaded curriculum of personal study. The student-teacher who enters a normal school in a loose way, and leaves it with a standing secured solely by means of a written examination, may prove to be neither a teacher born nor a teacher made, in the district where his labors as a practical operative begin. And the record of his non-success for a year or two does not tend to loosen the prejudice that the only difference between a trained teacher and an untrained teacher is one of salary; nay, makes the prejudice more of an abiding thing for a generation or two in that part of the country where he has laboured. In a word, there is only one way of getting rid of this prejudice, as well as the difficulties of salary, and of public indifference; and I think the school authorities of the city of New York have been about the first on this side of the Atlantic to find it out.

The city of New York, a few years ago, determined to establish an institution for the training of its own teachers outside of State

alliances. Besides this, the authorities have attached all salaries, on a grading scale upwards, to the position, and have, as we all know, a well-organized system of supervision instead of inspection. It would perhaps be unfriendly to say anything about the condition of the public schools of New York a decade or so ago, under the "pull" and the go-as-you-please methods. It is sufficient to say that under the active mayoralty régime of the Hon. Seth Low they improved every year. I cannot speak of any retrogression since Tammany came back to what seems to be its own. It will be hard for things to go backward with Chief-Superintendent Maxwell at the head of affairs; through whose kindness, I may say, I was able to make a study of the situation a year or two ago. Starting with the new training school I found it in a partially equipped condition in point of buildings. Its classes were then accommodated in the upper flats of one of the more modernized public school buildings. All the teachers I found to be practical educationists. They knew not only the science of the facts of their own knowledge, but there was a method in the minutest details of their teaching that no student could well refuse or fail to take away with him. The discipline was the discipline of the class-room of any ordinary school, not of the college class-room. Every lesson was illustrative of what might afterwards be found in the practising or model-school departments. And what struck me most of all was the subduing of that professional mannerism, which so often results from unequal imitation. The students were evidently not there to prepare for any remote examination, but to fit themselves to pass the ordeal of instant criticism by aiming at teaching in a natural unaffected way.

The entrance literary examination had been a matter for the outside, conducted previous to their making application for admission. Their leaving school certificates having been duly put on file, each candidate was handed over to the physician of the institution, who made no hasty examination of his or her physical condition. No physical deficiency of halting limb or abnormal feature was allowed to escape. No weak heart or unsound lung missed close stethoscopic examination. No young man or woman, who had entered as a candidate, was allowed to slip through to swell the numbers in attendance, or because he or she wanted to earn a salary. They were selected by the doctor because he found them physically fit to be operatives in the class-room.

And when the doctor was done with them they had to give

further evidence of their mental and moral fitness to be teachers, in the higher sense of builders of character, during the first weeks of their novitiate. Before the first month was over, it had to be shown that there was nothing abnormally deficient in their mental or moral make-up. Elimination had even occurred, I was told, after the first month had passed; and when the session came to an end, without any of the usual fanfare of closing exercises or valedictory, no student was allowed to pass out to take charge of a city school or one of its departments without the co-ordinated sanction of the training school staff. The purpose of the school is to make teachers, not to grade brilliants. Even when the graduates have been called to active work in the public schools of the city, they are not then beyond the supervision of the principal of the training school, who is legally associated with the public school principal and the district superintendent, to watch the progress of the novice, during the earlier days of his active service in school. Several of these novices have been forced to fall back on the training school for further disciplinary insight, while one or two have finally had to drop out altogether, even after escaping the fate from the preliminary checks. The report was made to me that under such a system of watchfulness, the careful, skilful teacher is always sure to be discovered, and that no failure has occurred in any of the schools of New York, when the teacher is a proved graduate of the New York Training School for Teachers.

There are, therefore, normal schools and normal schools. Some of these are institutions *per se*, with their examination-records, prize-givings and diploma-bestowings. Yet there is not a Canadian province in which the normal school output of graduates is not tainted with a percentage of prospective failures as practical pedagogues, and it is in this percentage of failures that is to be traced the indifference of public opinion in connection with the selection of trained instead of untrained teachers for active service. In a word, the function of the normal school is not only to train teachers, but to eliminate from the service all candidates who cannot be trained. The manufacturer dismisses the apprentice for good who, after sundry preliminary tests, shows that he is only gifted to run his machines out of gear. Why, then, should not our school systems place in the hands of their normal school staffs this eliminating function, to ward off the harm that is sure to come to the immatured mind and character of a boy or girl, through the clumsy operations of a novice, who,

from his abnormality, can never be anything but a novice, with failure in his every movement of body, mind and soul.

No one will question that this function of elimination in the hands of a judicious well-tempered normal school staff is a much surer discrimination than the fiat of any examining body. A prudently co-ordinated judgment of principal and professors is bound to be surer in its selections of capacity than any percentage of grand total marks. Indeed the normal school is an institution in which the judgment of the staff is everything, or ought to be. The "pull" ought to have no place in the selection of any normal school professor or model school demonstrator. The appointment of the wrong person to fill a vacancy in any of our normal schools is an unrighteous act, in the most serious sense of the term, since it is a race-retarding act, and that is always wickedness in its worst form. The public sanctioning of a man or woman to play at a game of make-believe in the chambers of a normal school, under whose influence false notions of how to teach are disseminated to the injury of even born teachers, is neither more nor less than a crime committed directly against the State.

INSPECTION AS A FACTOR IN PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

G. J. Bryan, B.A., Calgary, N.W.T.

(Inspector of Schools).

It affo ds me great pleasure to be present at this large and representative gathering of teachers, for teachers in the true sense of the word we all are. Our spheres of work and the scenes of our labors may not be the same, but we are conscious of a common bond and are inspired by the same purpose, the education of the boys and girls on whom the future welfare of our Dominion depends. A meeting such as this makes us feel that the work in which we are engaged is, in truth, a national work. Our school laws, our course of study, our methods may be dissimilar; we have travelled by different paths toward the same goal and it is by comparing our experiences that we are able to determine relative values. For I take it for granted that our attitude toward education is not that

of the Highlander who said that he was open to conviction, but he would like to see the man who could convince him.

As residents of Western Canada we are filled with pride at noting the vast development that has taken place during the last few years. From all quarters of the world, civilized and uncivilized, immigration has set in and it does not need the eye of a prophet to foresee that, in a very short time, the youngest daughters of the Dominion will not be the least important members of the family, and that the Western cities will rank among its great commercial centres.

But while this rapid growth is a source of gratification it carries with it a great responsibility. It is incumbent on the State to mould this new and sometimes unpromising material into loyal citizens. In this moulding process, this nation-building work, the public school must play the most important part. With us, the governing power is in the hands of the people and rightly so, but, in order that we may have intelligent government, we must have an educated vote. The greatness of a nation is based upon the education of the people. The state that deprives its future citizens of their inherent right to be educated is committing treason against itself and preparing for its own downfall. Our legislators have recognized this truth and have provided a free system of popular education, aided, and, to a greater or less degree, controlled by the central authority.

School supervision is an important part of the state system of education. As a distinguished German educator has said: "Its character and organization is a proper standard of measurement for the whole system, and, the more perfect and appropriate it is, the more the interests of education are promoted and the better will be the results."

In the industrial world the division of labor has created the necessity for a superintendent whose duty it is to adjust the parts and to see that each is efficiently and economically conducted. His is the master mind, the controlling hand. How much greater the necessity of such superintendence when the workmen are dealing not with matter but with mind and spirit. The Inspector of Schools is the connecting link between the Department of Education on the one hand and the teachers and people on the other. His work differs from that of a captain of industry in this respect that it is his chief duty and privilege to guide, encourage and inspire the workers. A distinguished American writer has said: "Recent educational progress

has brought out clearly the thought that in assigning duties to the superintendent too much attention has been paid to the business side of school affairs, and that his far more important duty should be to educate and inspire teachers, pupils, and communities. Superintendents are now selected, not so much because of great business sagacity, important though this qualification may be, as because they possess the power of mastering educational problems, of conceiving practical educational measures, of leading teachers to constant self-improvement, and of setting forth fitly educational aims and methods for the enlightenment of the public."

In order that we may have a clear view of the Inspector's duties let us consider his work in relation to the Department of Education, to the teachers and to the district.

In one sense Inspectors bear the same relation to the Department as scouts do to the army in the field. They place the Department in touch with educational conditions in their Inspectorate, and thus enable it with greater chance of success to conduct its campaign against ignorance. They are executive agents whose duty it is to see that the laws and regulations of the Department are carried out. But the highest privilege of the Inspector is to guide by his advice the counsels of the Department. Since he is placed in a position in which he can observe closely the working of school laws, and the suitability of school programmes, the recommendations and suggestions embodied in his confidential reports should receive more than ordinary consideration. He should realize that the Minister of Education expects him to advocate the best things. His advice should be given frankly and fearlessly even though he knows that his opinions are at variance with the settled policy of the Department. It seems to me that, to secure free and full discussion of proposed changes in curriculum, text books, or school law, it would be advantageous for the Inspectors to meet at least once a year. At this meeting methods of inspection and of grading could be compared and, as a consequence, greater uniformity and efficiency secured.

To the people of the school districts the Inspector's duties are manifold. He examines the books and records to see that the business affairs are conducted in accordance with the provisions of the school ordinances. He inspects the buildings and equipment, notes the condition of the grounds and outhouses, and takes cognisance of the improvement made subsequent to the last inspection. Since according to the School Grants ordinances of the Territories

a portion of the government grant depends upon the efforts made by the trustees to maintain a suitably furnished and well equipped building it is the duty of the Inspector after a careful examination of conditions to make the necessary grading. This grant is intended to induce districts to make an effort to maintain a good school. The circumstances and needs of the school are taken into consideration and more is expected from well-established and populous districts than from weak and struggling ones. The experience of the Inspectors has been that their hands have been greatly strengthened by this provision and that immediate beneficial results have followed its enactment. One-half of the grant thus obtained must be expended in providing books for the school library and, as a consequence, the nucleus of a good library is to be found in the great majority of our schools. Frequently difficulties arise between the trustees and the people or between the parents and the teachers which the Inspector's visit may remove. But in relation to the people of the district the Inspector's most important work is that of enlightenment. As a distinguished educationist has said: "The Inspector has another duty to perform not now fully appreciated. It is natural for us to expect people to see things as we see them and to be indignant at the conservatism and ignorance of the public; but conservatism *in education* is not wholly bad. The public realizes that as the child repeats the history of the race so must people learn by experience. It merely distrusts innovations and bids us prove their worth. We should respect this conservatism and seek no higher privilege than that of convincing the public. To this end the Inspectors will do well to be much with the people, to meet them socially, and to address them on every possible occasion: thus will be proved the seriousness of his thought and the faithfulness of his presentation."

But it is in relation to the teachers that the most delightful and valuable part of the Inspector's work consists. Here he comes into contact with the vital forces of the school, and both in the schoolroom and teachers' meeting he may be of great assistance in presenting right views of education and more effective methods. Even to a teacher who has graduated from Normal School there arise in the school room difficulties that perplex, and uncertainties as to methods and matters that can only be set at rest by the advice of one who has experienced the same difficulties and felt the same uncertainty. Some teachers look forward with dread to the Inspector's visit as if

he were a kind of detective sent out by the Department to spy upon their actions. There is no doubt that he performs the duties of a critic, but of a critic in the broader sense of the term, for true criticism consists in the pointing out of excellences and defects. In dealing with the Inspector's work in the school-room permit me to quote from the suggestions and instructions in regard to the inspection of schools sent by the Commissioner of Education to the Inspectors of the Territories.

"The time to be spent at each school will depend upon circumstances. The length of each visit should be sufficient to enable the Inspector to pass an intelligent judgment on the general standing of the pupils and the character of the teaching and government. In the average school two hours will be required, while from half a day to a whole day should be taken in schools found to be in charge of inexperienced or weak teachers.

"The chief purposes of the Inspector's visit is to assist and encourage rather than to criticize or find fault. During his visit the Inspector should endeavor to discover the teacher's strong and weak points. These should be discussed with the teacher in a frank and friendly spirit. The Inspector's criticisms should not be of a pedantic carping nature nor should they be made in the presence of the pupils. When the teacher is clearly at fault he should be led to understand that an improvement will be expected.

"In order that the Inspector may be able to form an opinion of the teacher's ability, the teacher should be required to take complete charge of the school for some time. The teacher should also be expected to conduct at least two recitations. The lessons chosen should be of such a nature as to enable the Inspector to judge the teacher's preparation, class management, method of presentation, and teaching power. Nervous teachers should not be required to teach until near the close of the Inspector's visit. Teachers holding interim certificates should have charge of the class during at least half the time the Inspector is present.

"The Inspector should examine as many classes as possible for the purpose of testing the knowledge, power and progress of the pupils. Before doing so he should obtain from the teacher definite information respecting the work that has been covered by each class during the term. In examining pupils care should be taken to observe their classification, the thoroughness of their knowledge, their

ability to reason and infer, their power of oral and written expression, and the arrangement and neatness of their written work.

"In case pupils are found to be improperly classified it is the Inspector's duty to make the necessary demotions or promotions. The interest of every pupil demands that he should be placed where he can work to greatest advantage.

"In reporting on the teachers' method of government the Inspector should note the means used to secure order, the attitude of the pupils towards their work and their teacher, and the general tone or spirit of the school."

The Inspector should call for and inspect the teacher's time-table. If the time-table is unsatisfactory, the teacher should be required to draft another and forward it for approval. Teachers should be led to understand that a well-constructed time-table, followed as closely and systematically as circumstances will permit, is an important factor in school work. An effort should be also made to secure uniformity in drafting time-tables.

"The school register should be examined and in case the several columns are not properly entered the teacher's attention should be called to the same. Teachers should be advised to note in the register, after each name, the date of promotion from one class to another.

"At the time of his visit the Inspector should endeavor to interest the teacher in the following matters: school room decorations, tree planting, teachers' reading course, school journals, conventions and school libraries.

"In his report to the Trustees the Inspector's criticism of the teacher and his work should be cautiously made. Great care should be exercised to avoid giving an excuse for dismissing a teacher who is doing good average work. In the case of teachers who are grossly negligent or incompetent the Inspector should have no hesitation about reporting the facts."

The Inspector should aim at securing the complete confidence of his teachers. They should feel that, whatever may be his opinion of their work, he will ever prove himself fair, honest, honorable and in the best sense their friend. If their work is unsatisfactory, they have the right to know wherein they fail. The Inspector should be willing to labor for the upbuilding of a poor teacher with all patience and charity, but no teacher should so have lost his self-respect as to wish to continue permanently in a work which he knows is,

in every way, unsatisfactory. In such a case it is an act of justice to the public and to the teacher himself for the Inspector to intimate that he would more fittingly adorn some other profession. But when the work is satisfactory a word of commendation will encourage the teacher and spur him on to more successful work. In the case of inexperienced or weak teachers it is unwise for the Inspector to point out all the defects. He should rest content with noting the chief points of weakness and, when these are remedied or partially remedied, at some future visit he may call attention to the minor ones.

I have dealt at considerable length with the Inspector in the school-room since it is there that the most valuable part of his work is performed, but permit me to mention some other ways in which he may be of assistance to his teachers. As has been pointed out, one of the radical weaknesses in public instruction is the low salary paid to teachers. As a Westerner I am proud to say that the average salary in Western Canada is higher than that in the Eastern provinces. But still if we compare the salary of the teacher with that of skilled workmen in other and less important spheres of labor we must conclude that it is far below what it should be. The Inspector's influence should be in the direction of maintaining the salaries of his teachers at a high standard. When requested by boards of trustees to recommend a teacher to them, I have invariably enquired what salary they were prepared to give and, if this fell below the highest average wage and the resources of the district were satisfactory, I have declined to make any recommendation. Oftentimes a hint from the Inspector that, in consideration of the efficient services rendered by the teacher, his salary should be increased, has been productive of the desired result.

Again, the Inspector may be of great assistance to the teachers in their association meetings. The success of these meetings will in great measure depend upon the interest manifested by the Inspector in them. Through his knowledge of educational conditions and needs he can suggest suitable topics and the names of teachers peculiarly fitted to discuss them. The discussion of matters that pertain to the every day work of the school cannot fail to be of profit. These meetings are a source of help to the inexperienced and weak teachers. Methods of work are discussed, lessons are taught, and educational ideals presented. But apart from all these the mingling of persons engaged in the same labor and encountering similar dif-

ficulties is of great value. Even the experienced teacher may find help and inspiration in these conventions. The question drawer should not be omitted from the programme. Some teachers who are too timid to ask questions in the open meetings may in this way have their difficulties removed. Teachers' conventions, properly conducted, are a strong factor in educational progress.

Having outlined the Inspector's duties, let us now consider his qualifications. First and foremost I would place high moral worth. The Inspector should be a man whose life in the community has an elevating influence, who takes a deep interest in the enlightenment and uplifting of the people among whom his lot is cast, and who is actively interested in the best civic and social life. He should possess a good education, academic and professional, and should keep himself abreast of the times. An Inspector should be selected from among the teachers. His experience as teacher will better fit him for the duties of his position and will enlarge and broaden his sympathies. He should be a man of quick and sound judgment, courteous, upright, and large enough in spirit to be above petty quarrels and jealousies. He should have a clear knowledge of educational aims and methods, a tendency to think out educational problems for himself, and withal broad minded enough to see matters from the standpoint of teachers, pupils and parents. He should possess great patience and tact, and should be able to present clearly and convincingly his views both by voice and pen. Finally, he must be a man of broad views and great foresight in order not to run aground in details. He must recognize liberty in methods within absolutely necessary limits: unlimited liberty or license cannot be granted at any time. Liberty of methods is just as indispensable and advantageous for devotion to the vocation of teacher as liberty of conscience and of profession are in religion. Last but by no means least is the quality of humility. The statement of Hughes that "the teacher who has all to give and nothing to receive is out of place in the school-room," applies with as great force to the Inspector. I can frankly say without being suspected of undue weakness, that through personal contact with the teachers my views on educational aims and methods have been materially changed.

Since the salary of teachers has been a subject of considerable discussion at meetings of this kind, it is fitting that this paper should deal with the salary of Inspectors. In another division of my subject I made the statement that the average salary paid to teachers

in Western Canada was higher than in the Eastern Provinces. I regret that the same statement cannot be made in connection with Inspectors of Schools.

The overseer of an industrial establishment receives a salary greatly in excess of that paid to the most skilled workman. The same principle should apply in education. The remuneration of Inspectors should be sufficiently high to induce the best men to take up the work and to retain them in the public service. The salary of an Inspector of Schools should be a recognition of the importance of his duties and an incentive to faithful and efficient work.

MANUAL TRAINING IN THE MACDONALD MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

C. Johansson, Montreal, P.Q.

(Director Manual Training Schools).

While manual training as an officially recognized branch of public school education is comparatively new in Canada, it has passed the experimental stage, and is here to stay. That it will soon become an essential part of the primary education in every province of the Dominion there is good reason to believe. A start has been made in all the provinces, and the results have been so uniformly satisfactory that I believe its general adoption is only a matter of a comparatively short time, and I will be more than gratified if these remarks of mine have something to do with hastening the spreading of manual training. At the outset of this paper I wish to express how deeply honored I feel in being asked to present my views on this important subject to this representative gathering of Canadian educationists.

The introduction of manual training in the curriculum of elementary schools in Canada was the meritable result of that feeling long entertained, but most strongly expressed during the last decade, for a change in pedagogical ideas. There was a strong desire for the introduction of what is known as the new education, or what was in reality the same thing, to revive that method of direct teaching which was in use long ago. For more than thirty years plans and schemes have been tried throughout all the civilized world, but we

are compelled to acknowledge that we have been on the wrong track. Our system of education has been too bookish, too mechanical and far too one-sided in its scope and application. The two great pathways to the brain—the hand and eye—were almost entirely neglected. Only a few years ago school books were almost entirely devoid of illustrations, schoolrooms were without decorations, and the walls without pictures. The road to learning was hemmed in with high blank walls. The way seemed long and uninviting to the youthful spirit. Our ideas have undergone a revolution, and the change paved the way to the introduction of manual training.

In the early days of education the ear was supposed to be the chief organ for mental development. The ear, therefore, was the road through which information must enter. It was through this channel, were poured in, holus bolus, dates, historical facts, geographical terms and definitions, arithmetical rules, spelling, rules for reading, and the mass of undigested facts which in those days made up education. The memory was overloaded, and refused to endure the strain beyond a certain limit. After long years many teachers began to think that the ear was being abused, and the eye was pressed into service. Pictures were used, and object lessons came into existence. The child was allowed to see as well as hear what was being taught. In its turn the eye was abused. Later still another advance was made —the hand was to be utilized to assist the eye and ear. The child, in addition to being told that ebony was a hard wood may now see and handle for himself the piece of timber, and learn from personal experience, that it is so, and that it will sink when put in water.

Just here I wish to say that manual training is not everything. It alone is not the summum bonum in educational development. Unless it is recognized that not the action of one sense but of all the senses working together is necessary for the highest educational development, the hand will suffer abuse in its turn. All the sense activities must be combined in the acquirement of knowledge, in order to get the greatest and best mental growth. We must remember we are not making certain objects for the benefit of having them, but as a means of training and developing and informing the judgment. They are simply the means; the end is to secure a general sense training, to give the mind the habit of accuracy. From a utilitarian point of view—and this cannot be too highly emphasized —they prepare the pupil for practical life, by developing his powers and self-confidence in such a way as will inevitably be of great ser-

vice to him in after years, no matter what his position in life may be.

Before entering more fully into the subject of manual training, I would like to quote the opinions of three eminent men which touch upon the basic principles of the system. Dr. St. James Browne, a distinguished medical authority, says: "We cannot therefore, comprehend how by keeping the children without hand training, poring over books, cramming them with decimals and geography while their hands hang flaccid, and their fingers grow clumsy and stiff, by withholding them from timely exercise in hand craft, we should be doing our best to abolish the skill of our next generation of workers. Depend upon it that much of the confusion of thought, awkwardness, bashfulness, stuttering, stupidity and irresolution which we encounter in the world is dependent on defective or misdirected muscular training, and that the thoughtful and diligent cultivation of this is conducive to breadth of mind, as well as to breadth of shoulders. Depend upon it that a strong, steady, adroit and obedient right hand is one of man's proudest possessions, for there must be a strong, steady, adroit and obedient brain behind to drive it."

Dr. Goetz has said: "The hand together with reason is that which makes a man."

Emerson, the great American thinker observed: "There is something not solid in the good that is done for us. The best discovery, the discoverer makes for himself. It has something unreal for his companion until he too has substantiated it."

It has been urged by some against manual training, that it is useful as an educational adjunct only in cities and towns, that country boys and girls do not require it. If we look upon manual training solely as labor, such a remark may be justified, but we are confident that wherever the system has been given a fair trial it is looked upon very differently. The main object of manual training is to make boys and girls think, to invent, to be exact, to persevere, to see the full value of drawing and many other things. Drawing is a living language. Those who call manual training a fad or an experiment have never given it a trial, and perhaps have never seen a training centre or a class at work. They have not seen the happy faces of boys and girls when the hour comes for their manual training lesson. Those who are so quick to form opinions on subjects they are unacquainted with, I should like to have in my centre for a month. They would

be convinced in less time than that of the usefulness of the system.

A brief glance at the history of the manual training movement may be of interest. It is to Uno Cygnoeses, a Finlander, (1801-1888) that we are indebted for its introduction into the public schools. He drew up a system of instruction between the years 1858-1866. Owing to his influence it was made compulsory in the latter year that some form of hand and eye training should be given in all the Normal Schools, and in the public schools in the country districts and towns. In Sweden it was first recognized in the official educational programmes in 1860, and was made compulsory in 1891. The Swedish Parliament voted a sum for its support in 1872, and the schools established by Aug. Abrahamson at Naàs, Sweden, are of worldwide renown. In these schools not only native teachers, but teachers from all parts of the world have attended. I was a teacher in one of these schools for five years. Many teachers have gone back to their own schools so inspired as to equip a centre with their own money. In England and Scotland gifts of money by private individuals enabled educational reformers to give it a trial. It was introduced into the public schools of London in 1886.

As woodwork was not then recognized by the English Educational Department as a subject of study, the School Board in London was unable to use public moneys to maintain it. The Drapers' Company, however, came to the rescue by making a grant of $5,000. Manual training was found so thoroughly acceptable, and its effects so beneficial, that it spread rapidly in the Motherland. In 1890 woodwork was officially recognized as a school subject, and School Boards and managers throughout England took up the work, and its development since that time has been little short of phenomenal. In 1892 I was invited to go to England to take charge of the inception of the system in Sheffield. We started in three small rooms, but very soon this accommodation became too small for us. In a short time we had ten classes a week, with 80 pupils in attendance at each class, drawn from eleven different schools. The boys paid two pence a lesson, and some of them sold papers in order to raise the amount. I remained in Sheffield two years and then went to Leeds where I started with 1,000 boys. To-day over 12,000 take woodwork and metalwork, but if I include those who are taking card-board modelling and clay-modelling there are about 60,000 pupils being taught in this branch of education in that city alone.

It was about the year 1888 that manual training for boys was introduced into the McGill Model School, Montreal, by classes in woodwork. At one of the meetings of the staff, the esteemed Principal, Dr. Robins, by means of his far-sighted wisdom made a prophetic statement that is borne out now by the modern education. He said : "We have been too desirous to teach our pupils from books what they should know, rather than teach them how to do."

A few years later the Montreal Protestant Board of School Commissioners established a manual training centre in their High School which they have since that time been running successfully.

The Government of Nova Scotia and many of the School Boards of that Province were also awakened to the importance of this subject and established centres before Sir William Macdonald's movement.

As it is well known by you all the general introduction of manual training into Canada under the Sir William Macdonald Fund dates from a more recent period, less than five years in fact. It was in April, 1900, that the first schools of the kind in Canada under the Sir William Macdonald benefaction scheme were established. He placed a large sum of money at the disposal of Professor Robertson of Ottawa for the purpose of providing centres with the necessary apparatus, materials and trained teachers, for carrying on the work during a period of three years. The three years have elapsed more than a year ago, but during that time there grew up a conviction in Canada, that this branch of education must be added to the ordinary course of instruction in the public schools. And it is gratifying to see that all the School Boards have taken the work on where these manual training centres have been established, and in some Provinces the Government already pays grants towards the work.

A few remarks on the progress of our work in the Province of Quebec will not, I trust, be out of place. There are now eleven training centres in the province. There are eight centres in Montreal alone. The subjects taught are: woodwork, cardboard work, wood-carving in its three different stages—chip carving, incise-carving, and relief-carving. Clay-modelling has been taught in connection with relief-carving. It is essential that a pupil should first design an object, then model it, and lastly carve it. When a pupil has made, after a well-organized course, a number of models, he is requested to make original models. In this way great stress is laid in developing his inventive powers, imagination, taste, etc. There have

passed through the different centres, 4,082 boys, and 672 girls, and 100 teachers in training at McGill Normal School have taken up the work. Further, 310 teachers from the different schools in Montreal and from the country districts have attended the summer schools and Saturday classes; 1,000 pupils have attended the Evening Continuation classes; and many Teachers' classes have been held after school hours, where they have paid for tuition and materials out of their own pockets. Doesn't this show their great enthusiasm? It is to be hoped that the Government of the Province of Quebec will before long make a grant to provide for this subject, so that these thrifty teachers will be able to apply in their own schools what they have learnt. It has also been very gratifying to see so many Principals, both in Montreal and from the country, study the work. The School Boards of both Westmount, Montreal, and the Eastern Townships have now taken over the support of manual training. Cardboard work has been taken up in some rural schools throughout the Province, and the outlook in old Quebec is most encouraging.

The system which I introduced in Montreal is based upon the English, Swedish, German and Russian courses. They have the same common aim—to develop the intellect through hand labor. They are all graded courses. In England and Sweden they have now in the majority of schools what is known as "Hand and Eye Training" through all the classes, starting in the Kindergarten with varied exercises such as paper-folding and cutting, color work, and simple clay-modelling, etc. Of these I should say clay-modelling has the best educative value. The mud pies and the sandcastles are the starting points to more advanced work. The clay is plastic and easily shaped by the child. It lends itself readily to every whim and fancy. It awakens the child's deepest interest. There is therefore a distinct educational tendency in this form of expression. It tends to give clearness and definiteness to the mental conception. In the process something more than the hand has been trained. The important thing that has been gained is the concept, which is a purely mental product. It is the forming of these concepts, clear and well-defined, so impressed as to be life-long in their duration, that constitutes a very important part of the work in all the earlier processes of education. This is the underlying principle of manual training, no matter how advanced and skilful the pupil may be.

Clay-modelling, this very educative subject, I am glad to say was already taken up by the Montreal School Board, and also by

the able Miss Peebles, Headmistress of the McGill Model School, Girls Department, before I came to Montreal. Miss Peebles also lays great stress upon sewing and cooking, which we all must agree is very essential for girls. Exhibits of sewing from her girls can be seen at this Convention.

Indeed, manual training owes its success to the fact that instead of ignoring certain established psychological facts, it takes advantage of their existence, and, using them as a basis, proceeds with them constantly in view. The natural physical activity of the child is used to advance mental development. The union between mental and bodily activity should be complete in order to result in the permanent development of the individual's capabilities in the most natural way possible. Precisely that process takes place in the manual training class room. The things in life which the young child saw, only became realities to him when he had found out by actual contact their weight, shape, qualities of resistance, smoothness, roughness, etc. And therefore manual training in making use of this natural process of acquiring knowledge succeeds as an educative force where the endeavor to instruct him simply out of books will fail to a very large extent, or succeed only after great mental labor has been expended on he part of both teacher and pupil.

Manual training as taught by a trained and competent teacher, is a true educational subject, suitable for early school study, and is thus very different from technical work proper, or the learning of a trade. It has prepared the boy for success in any career, having strongly impressed upon him the value of careful, correct planning in any undertaking, of working steadily, and of relying upon his own initiative. Eye and hand have been trained as well as the mind, and the thousand and one crises he will meet in later life, will find him self-confident and capable, and should the boy later on take up technical work he will have nothing to unlearn, though many things to learn. It has been often said, that the manual training school is to the technical school what the high school is to the university.

And now just a word on moral training supplied. It may be emphasized that the habit of accuracy induced is one of the most valuable results. The absense of accurate thought, a shuffling manner in approaching vital matters, is a glaring evil in the character of anyone. In the manual training class room, a thing is either right or wrong, there is no approximation, and it is delightful to see aroused in a pupil's mind a direct appreciation of truth and accuracy very

early in his manual training experience. In the concrete work the results of even the slightest deviation from exactitude are at once apparent to the girl or boy, as they probably are in no other subject of school work.

To sum up the advantages of a manual training course: manual training helps greatly to accustom the child to attention, industry, perseverance, and patience; to strengthen the will; develop independence and self-reliance; to inspire respect for, and love of, good honest labor, whether physical or mental; to train in habits of order, exactness and neatness; to train the eye and sense of form, and to promote the development of the physical powers; to develop the aesthetic sense and widen the sympathies, thus laying broad and deep the foundations of true culture.

Finally, the work of manual training is one powerful answer to the question asked in Edwin Markham's inspired poem:

> "How will you ever
> Give back the upward looking and the light;
> Rebuild it in the music and the dream;
> Make right the immemorial infamies;
> Perfidious wrongs, immedicible woes?"

You people of the true and tender North, so quick to adopt what is useful and good to your own advancement, so versatile, so energetic, who are building out here a newer and greater Canada, I have every hope that you will do much to extend and strengthen this much needed link in the great chain of education.

HOME EDUCATION EXTENSION.

ALFRED FITZPATRICK, B.A., Toronto.

General Secretary Canadian Reading Camp Association.

In his closing remarks last evening President Harper said: "The Dominion Educational Association is interested in every phase of education." This is evident or I would not have a place on your programme. I am neither a teacher nor an inspector in the ordinary sense, but in a humble way have some claim to be classed with both professions.

In the limited time at my disposal it would be impossible to deal satisfactorily with the general subject of Home Education and I shall confine myself mainly to that phase of it with which I am more closely identified, namely, Camp Education Extension.

About twelve years ago as a missionary in the famous redwood district of Northern California, and subsequently in New Ontario, I had an opportunity of studying the conditions of men in the frontier lumbering, mining, and railway construction camps of the United States and Canada. This fact forced itself upon me:—These semi-nomadic toilers out on the fringes of civilization need a building, other than that in which they sleep, for reading, entertainment, instruction and public worship. With this conviction I approached several employers and asked: "Will you not put up a shanty at your camp, separate from the sleep-camp or bunk-house, where the men can write their letters, read the newspapers, magazines, and books, look at beautiful pictures and breathe a little fresh air?" I was told that an effort of that kind was impracticable, the camps moved too often, and the men were too illiterate. In order to try the experiment the Association was forced to put the first three buildings up at its own expense. These were fitted up as reading rooms, a small organ was provided for each, and a little instruction given. The men availed themselves of the privilege. One of the most encouraging features of the work now is the attitude of many employers. They are willing to provide more buildings than we can supervise or provide

with instructors. Captain William Robinson and Mr. D. C. Cameron, M.P.P. were the first Western men to encourage this work, and the Association is grateful to these gentlemen for embarking on an experiment that not a few at first regarded as doubtful.

The chief feature of the work, as you will infer from what has been said, is a separate building at the camp, well manned with a duly qualified teacher, for the purpose of reading, entertainment, instruction and public worship. It is absolutely undenominational, and clergymen of all denominations—Protestant and Catholic, use these reading camps.

Twenty-five camp libraries were housed last season, and ten duly qualified teachers and several clerks gave instruction. Simple stories in words of one syllable suitable for adult beginners, maps, blackboards, etc., were provided. Most of the reading rooms in the lumbering camps are closed for the summer, but the work is being carried on at a few lumbering and mining camps, and, as a further experiment, two reading tents are being operated on the construction of the Temiskaming and Northern Ontario railway. These are in charge of a student of Queen's and of Toronto University, respectively.

You are no doubt aware that British Columbia has had a system of travelling libraries since 1898. These have been used with success in the mining camps, and agricultural districts. They are also being introduced into the lumbering camps. Ontario has gone a step further. It has not only initiated a system of camp libraries, but gives a small money grant for instruction, and publishes the report of the Association. Besides it has for several years sent representatives from the School of Mines, Kingston, and the School of Practical Science, Toronto, usually Drs. Goodwin and Bain, to visit the mining camps, and give lectures and practical demonstrations in mineralogy, geology and metallurgy to the men actively engaged in the mining industry. Last winter a deputation consisting of clergymen, public educationalists, including Principals Sparling and Patrick, employers of labor and the secretary of the Association interviewed the Minister of Education for Manitoba, the Hon. Colin Campbell regarding the matter. The Minister was most cordial and assured the deputation that he had already taken steps to ascertain the probable cost of initiating a system of travelling libraries.

The object of the Association is not to undertake work of this kind at all camps, but simply at enough in each province to demon-

strate its practicability, to develop public opinion, and to urge provincial governments to assume all responsibility, and make this a phase of their public education systems.

I have mentioned what the Association is doing, what the employers are doing—and by the way the Association is an organization of employers. Since the death of the late Principal Grant who did more for this work than any other individual, the secretaries are the only members who are not employers of labor. We have seen also what two provincial governments are doing, what a third intends to do, and what we hope all will do. You ask, "What about the men themselves?"

It goes without saying that the men who reap the immediate benefit of this accommodation, the employers who thereby secure a better class of men and better quality of labor, the governments that derive so large a revenue from these sources, and whose prerogative it is to educate, should contribute to this work. It is none the less the duty of the church and general public to co-operate, as the free institutions under which has grown up an enlightened and well-to-do citizenship have been largely endowed by the toil of these lonely denizens of forest and mine. The men who have filled these advance posts of civilization have hitherto been asked to make brick without straw in that which is most vital to the development of their characters. They have borne the burden and heat of the day in the exploitation of vast industries. They have made free public schools, colleges, and libraries possible by their toils, while as yet between themselves and the social and moral influences of civilization there is a great gulf fixed. This is a matter of public concern.

The trifling expense of making provision of this or a similar kind at every camp in the land is nothing compared with the benefits to be derived by ourselves and those whose wretched conditions we try to improve. It will cost the country less to provide bathrooms, laundries and reading camps than the revenue that would be derived from the additional number of good citizens. An enlightened and healthy citizenship is a better asset than ignorant and filthy slaves. Camp schools are cheaper than soldiers, paupers, drunkards and criminals.

We have referred to the co-operation of employers, departments of education, the Association and the churches, and briefly to difficulties overcome in the initial stages of the work; let me point out a few difficulties at later stages of its development. The greatest obstacles

to be overcome were not those of procuring buildings, nor the transitory nature of the camps and the migratory nature of the employees. A reading camp, books, newspapers, and an instructor are as feasible at the camps as a bunk-house, cook-camp, pork and beans, and a cook. The real difficulty is the illiteracy of the men. It is a lamentable confession to have to make that probably 35 per cent. of the men engaged in these industries could not recognize their own name on a letter in any language.

This is due largely to three causes: (1) The foreign element; (2) Attendance at school in the country and smaller towns and villages is compulsory in name only; (3) New settlements all over Canada from which these laborers are mainly recruited keep in advance of the public school; and when overtaken these pioneers are often unable, through stress of circumstances, to let their sons avail themselves of an education. The combined efforts of the family are usually needed to make ends meet in a new country.

Accordingly to make the library practicable in many of the camps elementary instruction is necessary; and when it is considered that over a quarter of a million men are engaged in these industries in Canada it will be seen that an important educational problem is presented for solution.

The success of the correspondence schools shows that the young men in the mining camps, and railway employees, who work longer hours than woodsmen, can, and often do, acquire an education by improving their spare moments. Would they not do more under the incentive and direct inspiration of an instructor? Unfortunately the percentage of men in the lumbering and railway construction camps who are too illiterate to take advantage of correspondence schools is very great, and these at least need resident instructors. Besides, the moral influence of young men of high ideals and right habits in these frontier camps cannot be overestimated.

It is not enough to send missionaries who will preach to these men; we must develop their minds as well as touch their emotions. The ideal camp missionary is also a teacher, and himself has bone, nerve, and muscle, as well as soul and spirit. Education includes more than worship. It must be full-orbed. The intellectual, the social, the religious and the physical must all play their part. We must bring these all together in one well-rounded personality. You can no more divorce mental exercise and worship from physical exercise or manual labor than you can separate soul from body.

This accommodation affords not only a measure of refinement and culture for manual laborers, but also manual training for teachers. In addition to imparting instruction in an unconventional manner to the men during evenings the reading-camp instructors themselves engage in teaming, sawing, etc.

The work of the Canadian Reading Camp Association is the complement of that of the manual training schools. Both aim at the useful and the ethical, the development of character being the chief consideration. These schools would effect this through manual training within the school walls; the Association through mental and moral culture without.

Charles H. Ham, in "Mind and Hand," proves conclusively that intelligent manual labor or tool practice directed towards useful ends promotes intellectual growth and the formation of character. The Association aims to dignify isolated manual labor and to free it from sordid and degrading conditions. Both believe that labor thus ennobled and made intelligent will become what Carlyle foresaw it would become, "the grand sole miracle of man" and the key to the industrial, educational, social and religious problems of our time.

What we plead for is the diffusion of education, not the education of a privileged class alone. There is not too much spent on university education, but too little on camp education extension. Thousands of dollars every year are spent on the education of the well-to-do, while a great portion of this money is provided by men who reap no benefit whatever. Rich ladies and gentlemen often send their sons and daughters to schools and colleges, and read books from libraries endowed by the toil of men in conditions so degrading as to lead to the sacrifice of their manhood; and who are yet despised by these same persons. What the Reading Camp Association asks for in behalf of these socially, intellectually and morally buried is not charity, but social justice.

Regarding the objection that the hours of labor are too long to admit of reading or study, no doubt we should look forward to the gradual shortening of the hours of labor of all workingmen. What, however, is of more immediate importance is to enlarge the range of interest in life for the laborer that he may employ in a wholesome and profitable manner such hours of leisure as he has, that when the opportunity comes he may know how to use more free time. As a matter of fact employers often fear to give their men too much spare time, not from mercenary motives, but lest the time should be abused

and employed in gambling, drinking and worse evils. In the existing condition of society there is usually more harm done on Sundays and other days on which men are off work than on any other day. Especially is this true of camp life. During spare hours shantymen suffer more from ennui, from their negative intellectual and moral life than from over work on other days. Experience proves that to increase the hours of freedom, without insuring that these hours are to be well employed, is to drag men downward, and that this is true of the rich as well as the poor.

The eight hour day in New Zealand has not been wholly satisfactory, and one reason is that adequate provision has not been made for the entertainment and education of the employees during their spare hours.

A consideration of the fact that capital is slow to invest in New Zealand does not come within the scope of this address. It might not, however, be out of place to say that if capital has too little margin to warrant investment the laborer should not be exploited to make a sufficient margin. The consumer ought to pay enough for the products of labor to allow both capitalist and laborer to live in decency and self-respect.

Some one may ask: What has the Dominion Educational Association to do with the education of these men? It has a great deal. Ladies and gentlemen, you are not only teachers of pupils within the school and college walls, but you are public educators in a much broader sense. It is yours to mould and develop public opinion, to be a conscience to it, and to the people's representatives in the parliaments of Canada; and it is theirs to provide for the education not of any one class but of all the people.

DOMSIE—A STUDY IN SCOTTISH EDUCATION.

WILLIAM SCOTT, B.A., Toronto.

(Principal Normal School.)

In casting about for a subject on which I may found a few remarks which will voice my ideas regarding the place of training in the broader work of education and at the same time give me an opportunity to draw attention to what appears to me some wrong tendencies in present educational theory, I bethought myself of the teacher whom Ian MacLaren has immortalized, Domsie. In reading Dr. Watson's account of the teacher who had sent seven ministers, four schoolmasters, four doctors, one professor, and three civil service men, besides many that had given themselves to mercantile pursuits, from the auld schule of Drumtochty, one is naturally led to ask himself wherein lay the secret of the success of his pupils; and in attempting an answer one is led further back to the question wherein lies the secret of the success of the Scottish nation, for, excepting perhaps the Hebrews and the Athenians, no people so few in numbers has exercised the influence in guiding and moulding the destinies of the world to such an extent as the Scotch. No people has a juster right to be proud of its achievements. No nation has a truer cause for congratulation on the success of its sons and daughters. Whence comes the ability which enables Scotchmen to make their way to the front in all walks of life, whether it is as a Gordon drilling the Chinese or resisting the onslaughts of the Mahdi's hosts in Central Africa, or as a Livingstone consecrating himself to the enlightenment of the Dark Continent, or as a James Watt revolutionizing trade and commerce by improving the steam engine, or as a George Brown and a Sir John A. Macdonald founding a new and Greater Britain on this side of the Atlantic? At the present time it is computed that three-fifths of all the officials of the Empire are Scotchmen; and in the educational world, it is only necessary to look about to discover how many important positions are held by Scottish sons and daughters. It is a national characteristic, says

one. The Scotch are distinguished the world over for their thrift, their perseverance, their pertinaciously pursuing a purpose until success crowns their efforts. But this, I submit, is no answer. Whence come these characteristics? Why have other races of the same original stock not developed similar traits?

Engaged as I am in attempting to develop power in those with whom I have to deal, it is natural for me to turn to schools and schoolmasters to see if there is a solution of this problem there.

It has been computed that an uneducated child has one chance in 150,000 of attaining distinction as a factor in the progress of the age. A public school education increases his chance nearly four times. A high school education increases the chance of the Public school child twenty-three times, giving him ninety-two times the chance of the uneducated. A college education increases the chance of the high school pupil by nine times, giving him two hundred and seven times the chance of the public school boy and eight hundred and twenty-eight times the chance of the uneducated. Now have the Scotch devoted more attention to education than other similar races? Has the desire to escape from ignorance seized the Scottish nation more than others? Have the beneficent and elevating effects of education been better appreciated by the Scotch than by others? Let history answer; and, as the institutions of to-day are best understood in the light of their evolution, and as the existing system of education in Scotland is an outcome of causes deeply involved in the political and religious history of the country and can be understood only by a study of their evolution, you will pardon me for giving a brief outline of Scottish schools.

Education in Scotland may be best considered under four great periods. The first from the earliest times till the 16th century; the second from 1560 till 1696; the third from 1696 till 1847; and the fourth from 1847 till the present time. While these periods cannot be separated from one another by rigid lines, each made a distinctive contribution to the progress of Scottish education.

I. The distinguishing features of the first period are the following:—

1. The establishment of schools by the Roman Catholic church. As far as possible a church was placed in every parish and in connection with it a school was established to be taught either by the priest or his assistant. Girls as well as boys attended these schools and were taught to read in the vernacular, this being all the education deemed necessary for girls of the middle or lowest classes.

The church also founded and maintained efficient classical schools in connection with their great churches or cathedrals. These were designed to prepare their students for the church or for the administration of government. It also had "Sang Schools" to train boys for choir service.

However, in these remote times, education was not left entirely to the care of the church, for we know there were "Dame Schools" to give an elementary education. These were numerous and quite independent of the church. Burghs also founded and maintained schools which brought to light many a lad o' pairts as well as fostered a spirit of freedom and courage to withstand the power of the church itself.

2. A second characteristic of these early days was the founding of three of the four great Scottish Universities. St. Andrew's was founded in 1411 to give the youth of the country a liberal education and prevent them going abroad to receive it. Glasgow University was founded in 1450; Aberdeen in 1494; and Edinburgh in 1582.

Learning in Scotland may be said to date from the time when the church having established schools all over Scotland crowned its work by founding these three universities. They were soon filled by aspiring students from the Parish, Cathedral, Burgh and other schools, thus enabling rich and poor alike to receive a liberal education.

3. The most remarkable feature of this period so far as Scotland is concerned was the passage of a compulsory school Act as early as 1496 by the Parliament in the reign of the brilliant but ill-starred James IV.

A Statute of this reign bearing date 1496 decrees that all barons and freeholders shall put their sons and heirs at school from eight or nine years of age and keep them there until they become perfect in Latin, under a penalty of £20. Here is the first attempt at compulsory education in Europe. Education must have been already general, for the Act assumes that there are sufficient schools for all to attend. It must not be overlooked, however, that the advantages of classical schools were not confined to the sons of the nobility and gentry, provision being made by gifts and bequests for the attendance of poor lads of good promise.

Although this Act was born before its time, the country being hardly ripe for it, and it was not very fruitful of results, yet it stands a striking monument to the far-sighted wisdom of the men who passed

it, and was a prophetic anticipation of the future development of Scottish national education.

4. A fourth event marks the end of this period, viz. the authorizing by the Three Estates in Parliament assembled in 1543 of the reading of the Bible in the common tongue. In a few years, the Bible made its way into almost every home and school in the land. At once, it became a powerful educational force. For three centuries it remained the chief Scottish reading book. There are those who ascribe the canniness and pauckiness which is a national characteristic to the fact that many generations of Scotchmen have been brought up on the Book of Proverbs. The Psalms were memorized. The Books of the Old and New Testaments with their epics, their biographies, their histories, their laws, their ethics, their love songs, and their realistic descriptions of nature, became a national literature. These fired the imagination, purified the thought, strengthened the intellect, and became the moral, spiritual, and intellectual upbuilding of national character.

II. The second period from 1560 to 1696 is characterized by the Reformation and the transition of the schools from a Roman Catholic to a Presbyterian state.

The scheme of education as designed by John Knox in his First Book of Discipline provided for a school in connection with every kirk, the Parish School. This was not intended to give only an elementary education but comprised instruction in Grammar and Latin.

It was from these schools that "lads o' pairts" from every stratum of society went up to the universities, for though the rich were compelled to educate their sons at their own expense, yet the of the poor were to be supported at the charge of the church; "the sons of rich and poor alike, if they have aptness for learning continuing at the schools until the commonwealth have profit of them." These schools were more and more appreciated until it became the laudable ambition and the proud boast of every fairly well-to-do Scottish family, to send a son to college so that he might "wag his pow in the pupit," even though the family had to live on skim-milk and oat-cake to let him have his chance.

2. Another characteristic of the second period was the struggle between the presbyteries and the barons to recover for education the endowments which had been sequestered from the monasteries by the barons at the time of the Reformation. The failure to get

possession of these endowments left the maintenance of these schools to the voluntary contributions of the church. Hence it was only little by little and piece by piece that the plan of Knox to have "in every parish a school, in every notable town a college, correlated to the university" was realized. Although the support of these schools was uncertain, precarious, and inadequate, yet popular maintenance caused an interest in them and popular education, which is generally lacking in state supported or endowed institutions.

Another benefit of losing this wealth came in 1633 when Parliament gave educational authorities power to impose a stent or local tax for the support of schools.

3. A third feature of this period was the Act of 1646, passed during the civil war. This Act established a system of education containing all the features of modern systems, such as proper supervision, compulsory attendance, provision for erecting and equipping schoolhouses, providing adequate salaries for teachers, etc., by a system of common taxation. Although this Act never came into force, it is a wonderful testimonial to the foresight of the men who passed it as well as a striking witness to the place education held in the minds of Scotch men at a time when civil and religious strife might have been expected to turn attention to sterner duties.

III. The third period from 1696 to 1847 is marked by the Presbyterian Church becoming firmly established as a result of the accession of William and Mary to the throne of Great Britain. The Act of 1646 was revised by that of 1696 for "Settling Schools." The security of salary and tenure of office resulting from this Act drew to the schools a body of superior teachers and imparted dignity and influence to the office. Many of these were graduates of the universities, men of knowledge and self-devotion of whom Domsie was a worthy representative.

In 1803 another Act was passed, still further improving the condition of the schools. This raised the salaries of the masters and made increased provision for establishing schools especially in the Highlands by authorizing the erection of "Side Schools" at the expense of the landowners.

In 1835 an additional class of schools for the benefit of the Highlands was established, "Parliamentary Schools," so called because the salaries of the masters were paid from a public grant.

In the meantime the burgh schools, although not included in the operations of the parish system and having no Statute provision

for their support, continued to play an important part in educational progress. The growth of commerce incident to the union of the countries, England and Scotland, led to a demand for courses of instruction better adapted to the growing needs of commercial centres. Discussions similar to those we hear to-day as to the comparative merits of classics, technical education, natural science, etc., began to be held.

Causes which are doubtless well known to every Scotchman led to the disruption of the Church in 1843 and the formation of the Free Kirk of Scotland. This new body threw itself with great energy and zeal into the work of education. Thus the single parochial school system gave place to a double one, comprising on the one hand, the parish schools controlled by the Established church and on the other separate schools in connection with other churches. While showing the interest the Scottish people took in education, this division led to a great waste of means, energy, and effort.

IV. The fourth period from 1847 to the present time is marked by the government taking the directive and supervisory functions of educational work in consideration of a greatly increased grant to schools. This was still further emphasized in 1861 by the passage of an Act transferring the examination of school masters from the presbyteries to boards of examiners appointed by the four universities. This Act also abolished the old religious test for the teacher and added much to his comfort by increasing his salary and providing a retiring pension.

In 1872 was passed the Education Act of Scotland under which the schools of Scotland are now working. This Act established in every parish and burgh a popularly elected school board whose duties are to secure the elementary education of all children within their respective districts; to provide sufficient accommodation for these children; to certify to the Parochial Board the amount of deficiency in the school fund which must be made up by means of the school rate; to appoint qualified teachers and provide houses for them, etc. This Act also provides for the training and examining of teachers; for the proper inspection of schools; for the compulsory attendance of pupils between the ages of five and thirteen, etc.

At the end of last March, Mr. Graham-Murray the Secretary of State for Scotland, introduced a bill into the Imperial Parliament to amend and improve the Act of 1872.

No doubt the Act of 1872 and the amendment of 1904 are necessary. Conditions in Scotland have changed as elsewhere. But the Act of 1872 marked the passing forever of the old-fashioned dominie and that old-fashioned tuition that was so well fitted to elicit original talent and aid its development. Maclaren and Barrie have given us pictures of how the lad o' pairts was discovered; how the ambition of the family was fired; how lovingly the spark of genius was fostered; how patiently the young student was grounded in the rudiments; the pride with which his career as a student was followed by the community which claimed him as its own; and the triumphant return of the graduate with all his university honors thick upon him.

This hasty sketch of Scottish education will suffice to demonstrate the interest which the nation as a people has always taken in education. The results are best summed up by Macaulay in a speech in which discussing the effects of the Act of 1696 he says, "What followed? An improvement such as the world had never seen took place in the moral and intellectual character of the people. Soon, in spite of the rigor of the climate, in spite of the sterility of the earth, Scotland became a country which had no reason to envy the fairest portions of the globe. Wherever the Scotchman went, and there are few parts of the world to which he did not go, he carried his superiority with him. If he was admitted into a public office, he worked his way up to the highest post; if he got employment in a brewery or factory, he was soon the foreman; if he took a shop, his trade was the best in the street; if he enlisted in the army, he became a color sergeant; if he went to a colony, he was the most thriving planter there. The Scotchman of the 17th century had been spoken of in London as we speak of the Esquimaux. The Scotchman of the 18th century was an object not of scorn but of envy. The cry was that wherever he came, he got more than his share; that, mixed with Englishmen or mixed with Irishmen, he rose to the top as surely as oil rises to the top of water. And what had produced this great revolution? The Scotch air was still as cold, the Scotch rocks were still as bare as ever. All the natural qualities of the Scotch man were still what they had been when learned and benevolent men advised that he should be flogged like a beast of burden to his daily task. But the state had given him an education. That education was not, it is true, in all respects what it should have been. But such as it was, it had done more for the bleak and dreary shores

of the Forth and the Clyde than the richest of soils and the most genial of climates had done for Capua and Tarentum."

In making these schools what they were, the first place, then as now, must be given to the teacher. These teachers were in general well educated, having to be college graduates. Many of them were, what has been aptly called "Stickit Ministers"—men who had been at college for a year or two, or who had graduated, who had intended to enter the ministry but for one reason or another had failed to reach the goal of their ambition and so had turned their attention to teaching. Judged by modern standards their training for the work of teaching was very imperfect but they had the most important of all qualifications after common sense, which by the way is often the rarest of all senses in the school room;—scholarship. Domsie was a good scholar. He knew classics and mathematics as well as some natural history. "A'body kent he was a terrible scholar and a credit to the parish." And for real teaching, the teaching that moulds character and inspires to intellectual excellence, there is nothing which can be substituted for generous scholarship, not even that other requisite which is often spoken of under the phrase, "the born teacher." There is no royal road to this scholarship, whatever we moderns may think. Time, labor and self-denial are what every one must pay for this foremost characteristic of the genuine teacher. The gods have put sweat in the pathway to excellence. The labor bestowed finally eventuates in a love of learning and then the success of such a one is assured, for he is never satisfied with present attainments. He never reaches the goal of perfection which, I am sorry to say, some reach all too soon, and then dry rot as a necessary consequence supervenes. But with all his scholarship, like Domsie, he is modest, unassuming and unpretentious. He is never proud or boastful of his attainments, for having laboriously climbed out of the valley of ignorance and dwelling as he does on the mountain tops of knowledge, his range of vision is so enlarged, he is so enabled to survey a part of the world of knowledge, that it is as true of him as of others that

> "The pride of man in what he knows
> Keeps lessening as his knowledge grows."

It was this knowledge that won for Domsie the confidence of his pupils and the active co-operation of their homes without which little can be done in starting pupils on the starry road. It is scholar-

ship that gives to its possessor that intangible and undefinable influence which is felt rather than seen but which manifests itself in the earnest work and co-operative activity of the pupil in educating himself. For in the end all education must be and is self-education, and at most the work of the teacher is mainly that of inspiration and his real business is to ring the awakening bell in the dormitory of the soul. To do this, like Domsie he must have generous scholarship. All the great teachers whether a Socrates at Athens, an Epictetus at Rome, a Herbart in Germany, a Wendell Holmes at Harvard, or a George Paxton Young at Toronto, inspired their hearers with the idea that they had mastered the subject which they taught. Are we in Ontario, and perhaps in Canada, not substituting a veneering of what we call method for this less pretentious but more abiding qualification?

Another view of these early times is worthy of consideration, viz., the aim of these reformers. This was not the low one of commercial and worldly success for the individual or nation but the highest weal of the person and community. Is not this a higher goal than that of to-day when the useful and the so-called practical are so loudly demanded? True education is an end in itself as well as a means to an end. Is it not better to be something than to get something? Is not the life more than meat? In this sense are not the moral and spiritual more practical than those qualities directly concerned with bread earning?

Is not the practical that which broadens the mind, adds intelligence to the intellect and thus fits a man to adapt himself to the ever changing conditions of life? Is not that the least practical which tends to fix one in a certain narrow sphere and bounds him right and left by the habits he forms and by his rules of thumb? Judged by this standard is not the worker in mere mechanical processes who finds himself so bound by the traditions of his craft that he is useless for any other calling in life, the most unpractical man?

Does not intelligence help labor much more than labor helps intelligence? Is not the practical that which adds to the intelligence rather than that which deadens it by a constant repetition of the same mechanical process? In short is not the practical that which makes men; not that which makes a cook, or a carpenter, or a dentist? Is that education not practical which gives a man resource and is not that impractical which causes him to be nonplussed by all but the most habitual situations?

Judged by these standards, Scottish education was extremely practical. It made young men intelligent and thus fitted them for any walk in life; and further, it incited them not to be satisfied with present attainments but urged them onward to something better, thus saving them from becoming mere machines.

Another feature of Scottish schools of which that at Drumtochty was a type was the care that was given to the individuality of each pupil.

In the legendary days of Athens, there was a famous robber who tied the travellers who fell into his hands upon a bed. If they were shorter than his bed, he stretched their limbs until they were of the same length; if they were longer, he amputated enough of their limbs to enable them to fit the bed. Now at Drumtochty the pupils were not put into the same measure and Procrustes-like made to shape themselves by its dimensions, a course which must have resulted in many cases in forcing forward the unfit beyond their ability and of restraining and dwarfing others of real ability and thus reducing all to a level uniform mediocrity. Are we in Canada not doing this to-day?

Domsie understood that his pupils were not all alike. He knew that some had five talents, some two, and others but one. He waited until the lad o' pairts showed himself, then he took further steps to fire his ambition and in every way possible aided him to reach the goal of absolute excellence. Even when the lad o' pairts had shown himself, he was not subjected to the same treatment as his fellow pupil who had shown equal ability but in another direction. Of course, following the custom of the times, Domsie hunted for Latin, but he helped Bumbee Willie in his study of Nature and thereby showed himself the true educator. In that at least he was abreast of our present theory and far ahead of it in actual practice. We are too apt to forget the individual in the mass. If our class as a class has done well, do we ever consider how many have been stretched beyond their natural capacity or stunted in their growth and in either case rendered permanently halt and lame?

This is one of the reasons why I think a boy or girl brought up in a rural school has so much better chance to be educated than when taught in a highly graded school with say fifty or more room-mates all doing the same work wherein many square pupils must of necessity be forced into round holes. In the rural school the pupil is perforce left largely to himself and his training goes on undisturbed by the

interference of the teacher, That dead uniformity is evil and that continually is proved by the experiments which are now being made in popular education in Italy and other countries, and that, on the contrary, a system which gives individuality a chance is conducive to the best ends is abundantly proved by the results of the work in the Scottish schools during the past two hundred years.

Teaching pupils in masses, teaching them all alike, subjecting all to the same discipline, attempting to influence all by the same motives, is one of the ways of spoiling children. Every thoughtful parent and teacher knows that no two children are exactly alike. A mode of procedure which produces excellent results in one case culminates in ignominious failure in another. I confess that the problem of how to manage so as to cause each child to grow along the lines of least resistance, and hence naturally, and thus not force it into a channel for which it was never designed, is one of great difficulty, one of stupendous difficulty, in our cities and towns. When the wise man said "Train up a child in the way he should go," I have no doubt he placed the emphasis on the *he*. But unfortunately for many children we train them in the way *we* think they should go. The blighted expectations of parents and the wrecks of many promising characters show the utter unwisdom of such a course.

Do we trainers of teachers sufficiently emphasize the importance of attention to the individual peculiarities of pupils? Do we ever point out the utter fatuity of attempting to make "a silk purse out of a sow's lug?" I fear I may be heterodox, but how many children are rendered miserable and their school days made abhorrent by a vain attempt to push them on into work for which neither their hereditary tendencies nor their own desires ever intended them?

As a result of the inspiring effects of good scholarship and the skill displayed in detecting "a scholar in the egg and in prophesying Latinity for boys that seemed fit only to be cowherds," another characteristic of these schools becomes evident, viz., the intense enthusiasm with which these pupils exercised their own powers.

Domsie recognized that mere knowledge alone is not necessarily power. Power is largely the result of self-expression arising from knowledge. No doubt each of the many distinguished men who went from Domsie's school practised the same loving labor of self-denial, the same earnest toil, the same burning of the midnight oil. No doubt each exercised his own powers to the utmost, at first it might be in response to Domsie's inspiration, but subsequently from

his own desire to excel. The former kind of activity, that which responds to present impulse, may produce fair, even excellent results for the time, but it is apt to lose its effects when the stimulus to excellence is no longer present. The latter having its spur in duty, in love of work, causes the student to take a high stand now, but what is infinitely better it never forsakes him, even when he is in the enjoyment of the ripest fruits of his hard work. In the world of knowledge there is no such thing as perfection. There is no danger of any real student having, Alexander-the-Great-like, to weep because there is nothing more for him to learn. Are we in Canada training a class who will become earnest, capable students? Too often I am conscious of the "Thank God, I am done with that subject." Is much of the time spent by the young in frivolity well spent? Will the qualities thus engendered be conducive to the best upbuilding of our people and country? No doubt the difficulties under which the work of Scottish pupils, whether at school or college, was performed was one of the causes which have made the Scotch remarkable for steady self-denial and persistent effort. Perseverence is the real genius. The ability to take infinite pains under the most untoward conditions, as in the case of the majority of Scottish youths at college in these early times, is that which produces men. After all action is the real teacher. Instruction does not always prevent waste of time or mistakes, at the most it can only minimize mistakes. Mistakes themselves are often the best teachers. Is the work in our schools and colleges such as engenders self-denial, persistent effort, and patient perseverance in the face of difficulties. How many of our teachers continue to be students as well as teachers? Why do so many teachers soon lose their ideals and their enthusiasm? Is it, as Quick suggests, that they are too hard worked? This explanation will not suffice in many cases, for often the hardest worked teacher is the most enthusiastic.

Another phase of Scottish education is worthy of a passing glance, viz., its fairness to rich and poor alike. Scotland never permitted that enormous barrier of expense to be raised as in England, which makes university education a privilege to the wealthy alone. The small expense attending a college education made it possible for every fairly well-to-do family to send a son there. Are our colleges as democratic as were those of Scotland? Are there not an increasing number of them where money and social position count for more than brains? Compare the relative expense of a college education to-day with that of a generation ago. Is it well for our country

that many of the most worthy should be excluded from this privilege by the rapidly increasing cost placing a college education beyond their means.

It would be easy to go on and show other respects in which it is very questionable whether we are making progress, but this paper is already too long. Let me state what I have attempted to show:—

1. What schools and schoolmasters did in developing Scottish character.

2. The importance of scholarship on the part of the teacher in enabling him to discharge his duties, and the fact that in Ontario at least substantial scholarship seems to be on the wane.

3. Attention has been called to the fact that the ideal is more practical than what is now understood as a practical education.

4. The importance of attending to the individual has been emphasized, and the utter foolishness of attempting to bring all to the same uniform level has been pointed out.

5. The necessity of self-denial and hard work in training leaders of men has been dwelt upon, and the fact that conditions in this country are becoming less and less favorable for the exercise of these virtues has been adverted to.

6. The fact that social centres are not necessarily centres of moral and intellectual force.

SOME FUNCTIONS OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

DAVID SOLOAN, B.A., Truro, Nova Scotia.
Principal Normal School.

Among popular misconceptions of what the present day normal school is doing or pretending to do are those pertaining to its functions in psychological study and in pedagogic methods. Psychological expertness being popularly assumed to be one of the special provinces of the teacher, it is not unusual to hear that the normal school is expected to turn out specialists by whom the subtle activities of childhood are promptly interpreted in psychological terms and whose every detail of method is based upon the mastery of psychological principles. Again, the normal school graduate is looked to not merely to work out in accordance with logical and pyschological principles general methods in education, but to lay down canons of the special methods according to which every effective lesson, every effective suite of questions will conform—methods applicable to every subject and phase of subject, and methods which, by implication, are the only correct ones.

Now, if there are functions which the normal school has come far short of performing and must fail to discharge, it is the two here stated. In the first place, psychological science is by no means sufficiently organized to enable an institution to turn out practical psychologists in the short order given the normal school faculty. Practical psychology means more than the mastery of text-books or of the views and conclusions of any number of psychologists. The truly psychological faculty, the power to recognize the phenomena of childhood and school as psychological, the impulse and the faculty to interpret these in the light of principles founded in or at least verified by one's own experience,—this is the result of an extended study of mental processes *in situ*, a study that can indeed be effectively begun, but only begun, in the normal school.

The mastery of method in that detail, with that certainty, and to that degree of completeness sometimes attributed to the instructor

in educational principles or to the successful schoolmaster, finds little confirmation in the consciousness of the modest pedagogue. His professional activity consists, indeed, in an effort to subdue the domain of method. But the conquest is one never completed; for, broadly speaking, education, or what is the same thing, educational method, is only the direction, conscious or unconscious, given to the interaction of prevailing views of life and of material things, of life's opportunities and duties, with the formative mind of the pupil; and the educator, who obtains with each new experience an altered and perhaps an enlarged view, is obliged to conceive his own educational method as the intellectual stream along which he is borne by the social, religious, philosophical and industrial impulses of his time and place. True, methods of instruction in individual branches of the curriculum can be dealt with to some good effect, even though they be set forth dogmatically; but they are not the main issue. The normal school undoubtedly does accomplish results not utterly negligible when it intelligently conducts the novice through the avenues along which lie the pitfalls, lines of departure, strategic points in the field of activity of the practical teacher; and for this service it has earned the gratitude of numberless teachers saved thereby from random effort, vexation, chagrin, and perhaps initial disaster. The ultimate concern of the teacher is, however, not one of school-management or of presenting knowledge, but of forming efficient men.

At the beginning of each term, there presents itself at our normal schools a body of young people arrived at the budding-time of manly and womanly enthusiasm, only waiting, as they believe, some direction, some cautions, some turning of thought upon itself, some practice in the application of educational principles set forth nowadays on every hand, to feel themselves equipped for the calling which is to engage their attention until a more profitable pursuit offers. These young people are morally and physically well-descended, vigorous of mind and body, and easily inclined to view their prospective employment into which necessity has forced them, as worthy of service more honorable and effective than that of a hireling. Till now, however, education has been to them a synonym for learning. The high school examination, the certificate of scholarship qualifying for admission to the career of teacher, has been their immediate and sufficient end. It is against nature to suppose that these young and irresponsible young people have seriously con-

sidered the philosophical basis, the aim, or method of education. So long as the written examination must remain the principal test of scholarship, so long will the high school student, with the consent of his hurried and over-worked teachers, continue to confound forms of knowledge with knowledge itself. The ultimate bearing on life of the learning of the public school; the practical applications of mathematics and science; the interpretation of literature as the expression of a people's ideals and consciousness; the serious contemplation of the historical episodes, epochs, and movements which have entailed upon us our present institutions and our modes of thought in civic and social relations; the formative and cultural value of the efforts required in knowledge-making, as distinguished from the value of the knowledge itself; the elementary conception of this very office of teacher which the student looks forward to filling, —none of these considerations can be assumed to have received much, if any, attention from the ingenuous young people who knock for admission at our normal schools. Their teacher has had no call to conduct inquiries into the psychological processes of learning. Order of topics and methods of presentation may have meant much to him, have demanded from him unlimited thought, skill, and patience; but these were not the pupil's concern: indeed, it was often expedient that the learner should know nothing of them. To the high-school student, the psychology of his own mental processes yields in interest to the exercise of those acquisitive powers so strong in adolescence.

The high school course completed, the would-be teacher holds the 'open, sesame!' of the public school; and, inasmuch as he has been successful in securing this immediate object of years of schooling, he may be pardoned for believing himself almost ready for the discharge of those duties which the schools require in order to maintain or improve our intellectual and moral standards and our citizenship. Inside the normal school, however, the unexpected awaits him. Instead of accepting without question the degree of scholarship certified by his high school credentials, the normal school subjects his knowledge to the carefully directed criticism of the student himself, examining it in its relation to other contents of his mind, testing it in its applicability to real affairs and especially as to its use in obtaining from the child a maximum of intellectual and formative effort.

Such are, in general terms, the conditions maintaining in our

high schools and normal schools. Examining more closely the functions of the normal school, the first observation to record is the immense preponderance of candidates preparing for elementary school work. Statistics will show that between ninety and ninety-five per cent. of the teachers of Canada are elementary school teachers. Some of these may, indeed, combine with their elementary work the office of instructor in advanced grades, but their duties in the main are those of the teacher of an elementary school; while a good proportion, also, of those who pass directly from the normal school to the high school sooner or later figure as principals, supervisors, organizers, or examiners of elementary work. Broadly stated, then, the largest function of the normal school is the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools; and one of the difficult problems in the normal school to-day is, consequently, that of striking a just proportion, in its curriculum, between the high school pedagogy which gives it a specious position among institutions of so-called higher learning and that pedagogy of childhood wherein the normal school has won its true claim to the loyal and hearty support of discerning educationists. On this matter I am willing to hazard the opinion that the pedagogy of the high school is not a branch of educational science or art so distinct from that of the elementary school as to demand separate extensive treatment in a normal school. The terms elementary and advanced knowledge, elementary and high school education, are only relative; and the transition from the one to the other is indefinable. The methods of the high school grow so naturally out of one's experience and theory as an instructor of childhood that it ought not to be difficult to devise a single course of training for teachers that will prepare them not only as formers and instructors of childhood but also as teachers of any higher grades to which their scholarship recommends them.

Whether or not our normal schools are really turning out a corps of teachers expert in this large range of pedagogical activity the thousands of country and village schools can readily answer; for in them the whole gamut of pedagogic expertness is daily sounded. In them the teacher enjoys the opportunity of viewing a miniature of education, of examining the intellectual setting of knowledge as grasped by children of different ages and different degrees of mental development. It is in them, therefore, that the teacher best effects that continuation of his pedagogical study and experience which will fit him for directing the intellectual and moral growth of the youth of

the high school, while at the same time he lays the foundations of ability as an organiser, supervisor, or principal of a complete school system like that of our towns and cities. Fortunate it would be if this view of the function of the normal school and of the training of a high school teacher could be made to appeal to the college graduate who looks forward to taking a place in the educational sphere as more than a mere instructor in a 'specialty.' His specialty, indeed, unless dealt with in its relations to other parts and to the whole of that knowledge of which it presents but an aspect, constitutes one of the pitfalls of our educational system; and in the judicious treatment of the matter of 'specialty' teaching lies another very important function of the normal school.

The normal school should endeavor to present an example of balance in educational values. The subjects of the curriculum should not only be studied, compared, contrasted, as educational instruments; they should, as far as possible be inter-related and reconstructed with a view to revealing the educational process as a whole and education as a unity. Normal school instructors devoted to special branches of learning, who cannot always be depended on to correlate their instruction with that of other departments and to interpret it in the light of its interdependence with other knowledges, are a menace to genuine progress in education. Their disciples are, in so far, encouraged to go forth with thoughts fixed too much on separate branches of instruction and too little on the child for whom the instruction is intended; given to prejudices in favor of this or that branch of the curriculum; likely to confound mere academic knowledge with culture, and to forget that the main concern of the educator is the net result of his discipline upon the character and general intelligence of his pupils.

Whether the dealer in 'general method' in the normal school is competent to correct these misconceptions on the part of student-teachers and to balance the claims of various subjects by inviting recourse to the study of educational aims and values, is a question that will, of course, be differently answered in different institutions. An alternative check has been tested with seemingly good results in those normal schools where not only is each 'specialist' a master of method in his specialty but where he undertakes to some extent the functions of a method-master in all the branches of the common school curriculum and of the lower grades of the high school. Here, each instructor is called upon, as part of his routine, to conduct the

teaching-practice of candidates, not only in the subject of his special department but in any and all of the subjects of the curriculum of the elementary school. The normal school instructor here discovers increasing opportunity to enlarge the scope and improve the interpretation of his 'specialty.' Present-day developments in school-gardening, manual training, and domestic science have their origin in this very impulse to relate as far as practicable the various departments and activities of the school, grouping these in categories denominated by terms which aim to convey the conception of related knowledges, in their application to the common affairs of life. Along this line it is, indeed, that the most conspicuous progress is being made in education both in the elementary and in the high school.

Two other functions of a normal school I may be excused for briefly mentioning: first, that of imparting to teachers a zeal for self-improvement; secondly, that of keeping before the minds of teachers their far-reaching influence as members of the civic organism. The student-teacher should be surrounded by every influence contributory to the emotional acquisition of a reasonable patriotism; of pride in his past; of confidence in a future directed by God's good providence; of the conviction that a place among truly great peoples is ours only so long as we remain irreproachable as individuals. The normal school is and has been the school where self-improvement more than scholarship is the ideal. It should also aim to be a truly national school, a nurse of that well-founded patriotism which expresses itself in genuine endeavor to promote the moral and material well-being of our people, to inspire noble sentiment, and to found the strength of our nation upon the enduring virtues of character shaped in childhood and adolescence.

On the relation of the teacher to the civic organism I need not dwell. Now, more than ever before, is it imperative for the normal school to expound to its students the relation of public education to our civic well-being; to interpret Canadian life, institutions and opportunities; and to form teachers one of whose aims will be to set forth these opportunities and to prepare our young people to avail themselves of them.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Minutes of the Elementary Section.

The Elementary Education Section of the Dominion Teachers' Association was convened Tuesday afternoon at 3 p.m. Owing to the unavoidable absence of the President, Mr. Ernest Smith, of Westmount, and of the Secretary, Mr. G. M. Ritchie, of Toronto, the President of the Association, Dr. D. J. Goggin, presided over the meeting.

The election of officers pro tem, was the first business of the convention. On motion of Miss Horn, seconded by Miss McBain, Mr. E. Montgomery Campbell, Principal of the McGill Model School, Montreal, was appointed president pro tem. On the motion of Mr. Wallis, seconded by Miss Stewart, Miss O'Donnell, of Winnipeg, was nominated secretary pro tem.

Dr. Goggin briefly addressed the meeting explaining the necessity of an organized body in order to accomplish the aims of the society; he then called upon the newly appointed president, Mr. Montgomery Campbell, to address the meeting.

Mr. Campbell thanked the association for the honor done him, in nominating him president and promised to do his best to fulfil his duties. In mentioning the convention for Wednesday he drew attention to the fact that the meetings were called for 2 p.m. and suggested that the members of the association endeavor to be punctual

The meeting then adjourned.

The Elementary Education Section of the Dominion Teachers' Association was called to order by the president on Wednesday afternoon at 2 p.m.

The minutes of the preceding session were read and confirmed. The President of the Association, Dr. D. J. Goggin, made some announcements. As no further business came up for discussion, the President called upon Mr. J. Wallis, Director of Nature Study,

in Winnipeg Schools, to read his paper on "Nature Study in City Schools." Discussions on the paper and on the merits of Nature Study were entered into by Mr. S. Moore of Salt Spring Island, B.C., Miss Agnes Davidson of Arrow River, Manitoba, and Miss Christie of Winnipeg.

Mr. A. S. Rose, Inspector of Schools, Brandon, being unavoidably absent, the President called upon Miss Agnes Deans Cameron of South Parks School, Victoria, B.C., to read her paper on "Parent and Teacher."

No discussion followed and the President declared the meeting adjourned.

The Elementary Education section of the Dominion Teachers' Association was called to order by the President on Thursday afternoon at 2 p.m.

The minutes of the preceding Session were read and confirmed. No business coming up for discussion, the President called upon Mr. L. H. J. Minchin, Supervisor of Music in Winnipeg Schools, for his paper on "Music in Canadian Schools."

The paper was discussed by Mr. J. Wallace, Director of Nature Study, Winnipeg, Miss M. J. Peebles, Principal of McGill Model School, Montreal, and Mr. Ambrose W. Stock, teacher, Emerson.

Dr. Goggin, President of the Association, made some general announcements.

Miss E. E. Rankin, Normal School, Regina, was then called upon for her paper on "Art in Canadian Schools." No discussion followed.

Mr. N. J. Jewett, Physical Instructor in Y.M.C.A., Winnipeg, read a paper on "Physical Training in Canadian Schools." Remarks were made by Miss M. J. Peebles, Montreal, Mr. Minchin of Winnipeg and Mr. Ambrose Wm. Stock, of Emerson.

Election of officers for the next Dominion Teachers' Association was then in order. On motion of Principal D. J. Wright, Deloraine, Manitoba, seconded by Mr. L. H. J. Minchin, of Winnipeg, Mr. E. Montgomery Campbell, President pro. tem. was nominated President. Election confirmed.

On motion of Mr. D. P. Clark, Winnipeg, seconded by Mr. Minchin, Mr. D. J. Wright, Principal, Deloraine, was nominated Vice-President. Election confirmed.

On motion of Mr. Warters, Principal of Manual Training Schools, Winnipeg, seconded by Mr. E. Montgomery Campbell, Miss M. J. Peebles of McGill Model School, Montreal, was nominated Secretary. Election confirmed.

On motion, Mr. L. H. J. Minchin was chosen to act as representative of this Section at the meetings of the Association.

The President declared the meeting closed.

NATURE STUDY IN THE WINNIPEG SCHOOLS.

J. B. Wallis, Winnipeg, Man.

Supervisor of Nature Study.

I suppose that during the past ten years nothing has occupied the attention of a large and influential body of educationists more than Nature Study and its possibilities. Countless books have been written and many attempts have been made to introduce Nature Study into the course for common schools. These attempts have been in other countries more or less successful, but in Manitoba, while a certain amount of Nature Study was on the curriculum, scarcely anything of a practical nature had been done. The appointment of a supervisor of Nature Study for a year in the Winnipeg schools was looked upon then, in the light of a somewhat doubtful experiment, and it is to the result of that year's work I wish to call your attention.

Before, however, giving an account of what has been done or attempted in the City Schools it is necessary that we have a clear idea of what was understood by the term Nature Study; what were considered to be its chief values and what were the great aims of the work.

To give a satisfactory definition of Nature Study is difficult, nay, almost impossible. And this is necessarily so for it is not this nor that but rather a point of view, an attitude of interest and sympathy with any and every thing which has not been made by man's hand. Perhaps there is no better definition than Professor Bailey's : "Nature Study is training the eye to see and the mind to understand what is seen." This, at any rate, has the great advantage of drawing attention to the fact that the main object of the work is *training*.

Next as to the values of Nature Study. Now no claim is made that the following are *all* the values of the work, but they are the values which were kept in mind in the selection and arrangement of topics for use in the City Schools; and it may be taken as axiomatic that unless teachers are first convinced of the values of a subject

no amount of care on the part of a supervisor will make the work a success. The values considered, then, were:

(*a*) It leads to the happiness of the pupil.
(*b*) It gives much useful knowledge.
(*c*) It conduces to power.
(*d*) It helps in the building of character.

(*a*) Its Relation to Happiness.

(1) Nature Study is the natural interest of the child. Each and every one of us is perforce in childhood a nature student. All early training is seeing and what a fairyland must the world appear to the little one making its first explorations into the great unknown realm of flowers and birds and trees! And then comes school. The child is suddenly taken from companionship with Nature and set down to learn the meanings of mysterious signs and sounds. Do not think that I believe Nature Study is the be-all and end-all of education, but I *do* believe that too often the little ones suffer from the sudden and great change made in their lives due to the introduction of school work. No one can do his best unless happy, and busy work of a certain kind is not always conducive to happiness. Correlate the little ones' out-of-door life with their school work. Let them have their pets and their treasures gathered outside. Encourage them to tell of what they have seen and the experience of our City teachers shows how they appreciate it.

(2) Besides Nature Study being the natural interest of all till they grow away from it, it is also a factor in the development of larger interests. To the thoughtful educator Miss A. F. Palmer's motto, "Give children large interests and give them young," is full of the deepest significance. One of the great problems we have to face to-day is what our boys and girls are to do out of school hours. In this great western continent where energy seems to be taken in with every breath we draw, we may rest assured that unless we find something for the children to do they will find something for themselves. We have to face the fact too that the average home life of our children is not of the best and it rests with us to do what we can. Proper Nature Study opens the door to many hobbies and a hobby is a safeguard against many evils.

(3) Consider, too, what an immense amount of unhappiness is caused by the incorrect belief in the power for harm of some entirely

innocent creature. What an immense amount of misery would be saved if for instance no lady feared a mouse, or a toad, or a caterpillar, or any one of numerous other harmless creatures! The fear of these things I hold to be mainly a matter of education though I believe that the ancient fear of the unknown enters into it considerably. That this fear may be lessened if not entirely eradicated, my experience in the Winnipeg schools leads me to believe. An example of this occurred in Grades IV, V, and VI, Fort Rouge School, where the class, although at first much afraid, soon became quite fond of two pretty little snakes. I may say that to the best of my belief every child in that school lost all fear of snakes from the mere fact of having studied these pretty reptiles. Many examples of children becoming fearless of mice, toads, various insects, etc., came under my notice, and might be given. Surely it is worth our while to study our children's future happiness by helping them to overcome their fear of many of God's most useful or beautiful creatures.

(4) Again, what an amount of happiness do we all unconsciously gain from the mere presence of life around us and from the beauty of that life! Which of us is not the happier for seeing the butterflies hovering over the flowers, or the birds wheeling in mazy circles high in the blue sky? And this is entirely irrespective of the beauties of colour, of song, of form or of adaptation which the creatures around us show.

To what an extent could we increase at any rate the possibilities of happiness, by training our pupils to see more and to see better—to see with the mind as well as with the eye; to take an intellectual pleasure as well as a mere sensuous satisfaction.

(*b*) Its Relation to Knowledge.

While the relation of Nature Study to knowledge was not unduly emphasized,—in fact being to some extent kept in the background, still attention was directed both to the intrinsic value of the knowledge gained and to the correlation of this knowledge with other departments of school work. Hence what I have to say falls naturally under two heads: (1) Its intrinsic value, and (2) Its value in relation to other subjects.

(1) In this country of ours where agriculture holds such an important place the definite, scientific knowledge, which proper Nature Study should give, would be of the greatest importance. It was Nature Study which discovered the cause of smut in grain crops

and prescribed a remedy; it was Nature Study which found the cause of the San Jose scale and of the Cottony Cushion scale and means to combat them and so on almost ad lib. But it is not only farmers who derive benefit from the results obtained from Nature Study. It was merely a higher form of the work which found the relation of the mosquito to malarial and to yellow fever; it was merely applied Nature Study which led to the discovery of the expansive force of steam, of Newton's Laws of motion, of the theory of storms which has resulted in the saving of many lives. Look around and see what we owe to Nature Study in its highest form. It is, "Training the eye to see and the mind to understand what is seen," and what do we not owe to the minds which saw and understood what they saw?

(2) But more nearly concerning us as teachers is the relation of the Nature Study work to other subjects on the programme. Now one of the charges made against our curriculum was that it was already overcrowded and if Nature Study were introduced why the results would be most disastrous. Results have not borne out these forebodings. Bearing in mind that as I had but a year to get the work into running order, I had to have rather longer programmes than would otherwise have been the case, it is wonderful how little time the teachers as a whole have spent on the work. That this was due to the correlation of the work with other branches of study I do not doubt for a minute.

The branches of work with which Nature Study may be most readily correlated are as follows:

I. Elementary School subjects. Among these are Drawing, Reading, Composition and Geography. The relation of each of these to Nature Study is obvious and that both Drawing and Composition may be improved by this correlation I hope to show. Any modern Reader or Geography shows how these two branches are united to Nature Study.

II. High School subjects. The chief, probably, are Botany, Physics and Chemistry, and I feel sure that every teacher of pupils beginning these subjects has felt the lack of preliminary training, or of an apperceptive basis, in the scholars.

(*c*) Its Relation to Power.

Which is better, that our pupils should know much or that they should have power to do much, to gain more knowledge? What we

want is not a mere walking encyclopaedia but a man of action, a woman of ability, and no subject of study can, from its very nature, give as much training in this direction as Nature Study. This is most important, for upon this point, more than upon any other, should the value of Nature Study be judged. Consider the effect of continual seeing and thinking for one's self. No books here! Nothing but the seeing eye and the understanding mind! Nothing is too small or mean to be passed by unnoticed, nothing but will repay close and careful observation, nothing but which has some wonderful thought about it! Can any other subject teach self-reliance like this? Does any other subject train as this does? I say, no! Nature Study stands alone as a means to *train* our pupils, to make them keen and thoughtful observers, to make them self-reliant so that they may be ready to face and attack any problem of their after lives; in short to make them *thinking, doing* men and women rather than machines, and is this not good?

(*d*) Its Relation to Character.

"The purest treasure mortal times affords, is spotless reputation," and reputation is *usually* the outcome of character. Nature Study as an aid to character formation is distinctly in advance of any other school subject. The interaction of constant watching and searching for truth is too obvious to require pointing out, and the effect of the influence of the world of nature on mankind is also well known. Then, too, cruelty could not exist where interest and sympathy had taken the place of a careless indifference. A case illustrating this point came under my notice last June when one of our school boys rescued a frog from another and explained how he and his classmates had watched frogs go through the egg and tadpole stages to emerge triumphantly as frogs.

Then there is the religious side of our character. Surely true religion must include a just appreciation of the wonderful works of God. At any rate it seems to me that continual contact with the wonderful, and constant search for the first cause of things, must assist in developing the idea of a Supreme Being, which after all is the basis of all religions.

The above, then, were the chief values of Nature Study as set before the Winnipeg teachers; but more stress was laid upon the values from the standpoints of training and correlation, than upon the others.

Methods.

In carrying out the work outlined what were the methods used by the Teachers? That is a difficult question to answer. In Nature Study, more than in any other subject, method or plan must play a most unimportant part. The chief aim being to train seeing and thinking, it is evident that the pupils must do the work, and that is just what our most successful Nature Study teachers allowed and encouraged. They were interested and sympathetic, made suggestions and smoothed away difficulties but *the pupils did the work, saw for themselves, and thought for themselves.* The method, if you can call it such, was merely to suggest a certain line of work to the pupils and leave them to carry it out. For this reason the programmes were always merely suggestive,—a topic being outlined, the point of view explained, and the rest being left to the needs of the class. It was proved again and again that the most valuable work was not that from the programmes but that which was suggested by the pupils, or even in some cases commenced and in a great measure carried out with no assistance from the teacher.

Topics.

While methods are of the least importance in Nature Study, topics should by no means be left to chance.

In the choice of topics for the programmes I issued, I was guided by several considerations, the chief being:—(1) The topics must cover so wide a ground that every pupil and every teacher will be interested in something each month. (2) The material necessary must be readily available.

Keeping these considerations in view each programme contained, where possible, topics dealing with both animate and inanimate nature. The following outline shows about what was on the programmes during the year though, of course, no teacher was expected to do all this work.

- (1) Insects
  - I. Metamorphoses.
  - II. Foods.
  - III. Friends and Foes.
  - IV. Relation to Man.
- (2) Animals
  - I. Four footed
    - Wild.
    - Tame.
  - II. Birds
    - Recognition of,
    - Special study of.
  - III. Miscellaneous
    - Frogs,
    - Aquaria, etc.

(3) Plants	I. Trees and Shrubs	Recognition of by leaves, flowers, etc. Uses.
	II. Flowers	As of trees, Adaptation of.
(4) Inanimate	I. Weather	Records of and Inferences.
	II. Sun and Moon and Stars	Movements. Changes of Moon. Recognition of stars.
	III. Heat and Cold	Effects. (Introductory to Physics.)

It might prove interesting to state shortly the purpose of a few of these topics and how they succeeded.

(*a*) Insect Study. The study of caterpillars and of various larvae proved most interesting. The objects were to quicken observation and to arouse interest and both were attained to the full. The record of some of the observations of caterpillars passing into the pupal stage were little short of marvellous and elicited from a critic, little given to praise, that he "could not have believed it possible if he had not seen it." Interest was fully aroused and the children waited anxiously for the outcoming of the winged insect in spring, and it is on record that a geography lesson was broken up by the unexpected emergence of an Isabella moth. Mosquitoes also received their full share of attention as did various other aquatic larvae.

(*b*) Pets of various descriptions were studied. With the Juniors the main object was to arouse interest; with the Seniors to call attention to adaptation for the purpose of giving the point of view of relation to environment. Success was gained with both and much delightful work was done.

(*c*) Trees and Flowers. The recognition of our common trees by their leaves, flowers, or general appearance occupied a good deal of attention. It was felt that a desire to know about the common things around might well commence with those things so easily recognized as the trees and flowers. Collections of leaves were made in the fall and of flowers in the spring. One Grade—Junior 1—in a school near the centre of the city, brought in thirty-six kinds of wild flowers to be identified. Was not that remarkable? I myself saw

children naming the trees as they went along the road—surely a sign of interest. With the Senior grades — V and VI, besides mere recognition and general information, the relations of the plant to water, light, soil, and insect visitors were touched upon. Most interesting experiments were made and some coloured drawings of these on exhibition are well worth study. The relations of colour, smell and shape of flowers to the insect visitors proved intensely interesting and in most cases easily understood. In the exhibition will be found some very fine work on the relation of the Clover and of the Lady Slipper to insects. On the whole I may say that all topics concerning plants were most satisfactory to both teachers and pupils.

(*d*) Weather Records. These were profitable and interesting. They incited close and accurate observations and in a few cases clear and truthful inferences were drawn. On the whole, however, this topic was not so successful with the Senior as with the Junior grades.

(*e*) Moon. This topic was on the whole, the least successful of any on the programmes. The purpose of the topic was to show the pupils that even the things they see so often as the moon may have something wonderful about them and that by their own unaided efforts they can arrive at a clear understanding of something as mysterious as the moon's changes. In one case only was the topic a complete success. Then a grade V, with no aid from the teacher, worked out for me, from their observation books, a perfectly accurate account of the causes of the moon's phases and apparent and real motions.

These examples will perhaps be sufficient to indicate our line of work and if a study of the work, on exhibition downstairs be made in the light of what I have just said, doubtless much that is there will take on a new meaning.

Difficulties.

Naturally in taking up a new subject a few difficulties presented themselves, but fortunately they were few. They were mainly connected with the pupil, parent, or teacher.

We had an odd case or so where the parents objected to the work but I am glad to say encouragement far outweighed discouragement. In one class the pupils thought they knew all about some of the topics but they were easily shown their mistake.

The real difficulty lay in the diffidence of the teachers. Accustomed to teach nothing but what they knew all about they—perhaps naturally— did not like to commence on a subject which they felt so appallingly ignorant of as Nature Study. Yet one teacher, who made as great a success as any, knew absolutely nothing about it, but she saw its value and "went at it" with the result that the children of her school did Nature Study which I do not believe could be excelled. On the whole, however, I think that the Winnipeg teachers deserve the highest commendations for the way they approached a subject of which they knew so little and felt so frightened as Nature Study.

Results.

Now what have been the results of this year's work? Has Nature Study justified itself? Perhaps I am biassed but I certainly think it has. Many things in its favour have been said to me by the teachers and they should be the most competent judges. One lady said to me that she had never realized how much the work had done for her class, until pupils, who had not before done the work, came in. Then the difference in powers of observation, both as to quickness and correctness, was remarkable. I asked her to make a test, and twenty eight pupils were sent outside, for ten minutes, with directions to see all they could in the way of life. At the end of that time they were recalled and asked to draw anything they had seen, and to write anything they had seen it do. The results were striking. All pupils, who had taken Nature Study, had seen eight or more different things and had something to say of each. One girl, ten years of age, in grade IV, who had taken the work for about seven months saw sixteen different things and her observations on these things were remarkably accurate. I had her work mounted with that of a boy, age fourteen, grade V, who had not previously done Nature work. He saw only two ants, a red one and a black one and he had nothing to say about them.

Many instances occurred showing how keen and thoughtful the observation was becoming. I am sorry I have not space to give you many instances of this, but one will suffice. A boy of nine and a girl of ten each asked the question, "Why, on some of our shrubs and trees, do the flowers come before the leaves?" This question had in no way been suggested by the teacher, and, as far as I could find out, by no one else. Surely a question such as that marked considerable thought and observation.

So much for the training given by the work. Has it also proved valuable as regards other branches of school work? As far as can be judged it most certainly has. Miss Atcheson, Supervisor of Drawing in the Winnipeg Schools, told me that it had helped the pictorial side of her work greatly. To use her words, "It seems to have inspired the children." Surely conclusive testimony. Composition has shown a marked improvement where Nature Study subjects have been much used. In Grade I, Fort Rouge School, the compositions of the more advanced pupils were marvellous, and the teacher said it was due simply and solely to the fact that the children *wanted* to write about things, in fact were quite offended if not allowed to do so. Early in spring a little girl, attending this class, found a beetle. She took it home and showed it to her mother. "Look, mother," she said, "I shall take this to school to show Miss ——." After thinking a minute or two she added, "I guess I won't though for if I do teacher will ask me to write a story about it." Two months after that the same little girl was writing splendid compositions about things she saw, and was continually bringing creatures to school and asking to be allowed to write about them. If you have time, look at a composition in the Nature Study exhibit, entitled "My Robin." That composition is, with the exception of a few corrections in spelling, exactly as first written, for the first draft was handed in when I was in the room and I asked that it be re-copied just as written. The little girl who wrote it was only just seven years old! You will find other compositions there just as good, and it is noteworthy that most of them come from that same room, where the children were encouraged, in place of having busy work, to write about anything they had seen.

Whether the work has been successful is best shown by the exhibit, and I can only ask you to judge it in the light of what has been said. Judge it not as art, or composition, or writing, but in relation to these. Does not the work there exhibited also show that the children are getting the training which we consider so important? Remember that it is not Nature Study you see on the walls, but merely an indication of Nature Study. The work does not look to the making of collections or of beautiful drawings but chiefly to the effect on the pupils' mind and that cannot be put on paper.

Conclusion.

In conclusion I would say to those who have not tried Nature Study, "Begin." It does not matter where or how. As Prof. Bailey

says: "Begin, if not at the commencement, at the end—anywhere, but begin!"

Aim high; be less concerned with the subject than with the pupil. Think, not of bugs, or animals or plants, but of the pupil and his needs. Make the outside world, and a knowledge of it, not the end but just a means to an end; that end to be the broadening of the pupil's mind, and a training and strengthening of his powers, so that besides knowing more he will be better able *to learn* and *to do* in any direction in which he may apply himself.

"Greatly begin! If thou hast time
But for a line, be that sublime!
Not failure, but low aim is crime.

NOTE.—In order to emphasize the value of Nature Study as an assistance to other subjects I have decided to print the composition mentioned particularly in my address. There were other compositions as good both from Junior and Senior pupils, but I know the age of the girl who wrote the one given and can vouch for it being entirely her own work and uncorrected except, as already mentioned, with regard to a few mis-spelt words.—J.W.W.

MY ROBIN.

ETHEL TURNBULL. (AGE 7).

Last year a robin came and built its nest on our house. It is on the eave. You can not see the mother when she sits on her nest. Only her tail. This year the same robin came back. It did not build a new nest it got in the same nest. Last year she did not have any children, but this year the mother has some. I think they are the dearest little robins I ever saw But they seem all feet. One day Angus got the hose and turned it on them but we never heard any noise. The robins do not like him, mother said he might have drowned them. She gave him a scolding and told him he was a bad boy but he did not care. The mother bird will eat out of our hands, but not out of Angus and Allan's, because Allan always scares it away. He always says, "see if I can catch that robin." So that is why every time Angus comes they all run. They are so afraid and I think that is why we hardly ever see them. We only see them about once a day. The mother is quite tame but the father is not.

One morning I saw the robin hopping around the yard, she had with her the three little robins. They had some of their feathers The babies were chirping like everything. Yesterday Helen said that she saw the robin fly up to the nest with a bug in its mouth. When the robin got up there she heard an awful noise the little robins were after the bug. One day I saw a big black bird fly up to the nest, and try to knock it down. I knew they were fighting because they made such a noise. The mother did not want anything to harm her babies. I saw Mr. and Mrs. with one baby (in the) yard next to ours. At first I thought it was our robin but I am not sure, for if it is two of their babies died. Because they only had one with them. I stopped to watch them. Angus came. When the robin heard Angus coming, the little robin and his father flew up in the tree, But Mrs. Robin did not she just walked around the yard. They kept chirping to her, calling her to come with them.

This morning I saw the robin. There was another bird with it This bird was all black except its breast was blue. And this was fighting with the robin because the robin (had) fish worms in its mouth and the black bird was trying to get it, it did not sound as if they were singing. The robin did not give the worm too it.

This morning my little robin was chirping around the yard, it was digging holes in the earth. I wondered what it was doing. At last I saw it take something in its mouth, I stopped to see what it was doing. I saw that it had a worm in one side of its mouth and a piece of bread in the other side of its mouth, it flew up to its nest with it.

That is all I can tell you to-day, I well tell you more the next time I see it.

I have not seen my robin for two days. I think it must have gone away to another place. If she has I hope they won't use her cruelly. She has taken the little ones with her. I miss her very much and so does the dog because when she flew down he never chased it, and now he just lies on the corner of the veranda, but he chases all the other birds when he gets the chance. I think he would like (to) catch one but I have never seen him catch one yet. He often tries to chase them so far that he gets very tired.

Everybody in our family misses the little robin. We never hear the nice little song that the robin used to sing. It used to come and sit up on the roof and sing so nice to us. I don't think I'll every see my robin again.

PARENT AND TEACHER.

By Agnes Deans Cameron, Victoria, British Columbia.

(Principal of South Park School.)

In the old Norse myth, Thor, in his fight with the giants, finds himself confronted by a cat, which he is told to lift. He bends over, grasps the animal by the back, and begins to raise her. She firmly holds on by the ground; the higher Thor lifts, the more the cat stretches. "Marvel not," said Utgard's giant, "that you are unable to lift the cat—it is Jormundgartha herself, the great serpent that binds the world."

This story came very forcibly to my mind when I took time to calmly look at the subject assigned me, "Parent and Teacher;" it is a huge subject, it takes in everything and strikes at the roots of things. Its factors are the home, the school, the child, the parent, the teacher, the church, society in the aggregate, and back of all these *The First Great Cause.* I scarcely know where to attack it.

The rule I lay down in my English classes, "When you have anything to tell, begin at the beginning, go straight on to the end, and then stop," will not apply. The most devoted partisan will scarcely claim that Adam and Eve made a striking success of the world's first Kindergarten. Turning the page to patriarchal times, we find the father instructing his son in the arts of war and peace, and the mother expounding to her daughters the primal duties of obedience and industry. The teacher had not arrived. Each parent taught his own children as a matter of course, just as he fashioned his own skin garments and pounded his own corn; each family in matters of education, as in every line of domestic labour, was a unit by itself.

A day came (days are always coming) when the workers in the world's economy realized that better results could be secured by a division of labour. One man now grinds the corn, another turns tailor, a third is shoe-maker in common. By a natural process, one parent, as his share of the community work, undertook to teach for a certain number of hours a day with his own children the children of his

neighbours, the butcher, the baker, the candlestick-maker. It is the *coming of the school-master ;* we may not minutely follow his evolution. A peep, just one peep, into the Roman-Hellenic schools as we pass, I want to show you the origin of a modern fetish. It is a much admired painting hanging in the courts of Charlemagne; it represents the seven liberal arts with Grammar as queen, sitting under the tree of knowledge, a crown on her head, in her right hand a knife with which to cut out errors, and in her left a thong to scourge the erring. Note her well; she has high priests still in certain enlightened centres whose will it is that the voice of the infant shall babble "noun common, third person, neuter gender, thou mightest, couldst, wouldst or shouldst have been loved," regardless of the fact that English is a grammarless language and that we call ourselves a free people.

The history of education in our own Mother Country is an extraordinary one, and, like "Paradise Lost," proves nothing, though it illustrates admirably enough man's fallen state. Henry VIII., the majestic lord that broke the bonds of Rome, was the most highly educated man who has ever played the part of President of a Board of Education, he forged the first link between the Crown and the elementary schools.

Tests for teachers began in Elizabeth's day, when the oaths of supremacy and allegiance were required to be taken by all school-masters. The bishop first appears on the scene in the reign of James I.; this is the high water mark of Anglicanism. The Commonwealth decreed that school-masters should keep the chancels, schools and grave-yards in proper repair, and stand ready to powder wigs and shave high dignitaries. These requirements have the advantage, at least, of being explicit; the teacher knew exactly what was expected of him and there was a known limit to his work. This is as it was in the Mother Country.

We know that our Canadian system of schools is founded on Old World methods and that year by year we steadily progress and improve that system. Turning the field-glass from the good old Elizabethan age to the present day in our Canadian Greater Britain, what do we see?

Well, for one thing, the parent as an active factor in the equation educational has reduced his personal responsibility pretty nearly to zero, and unless some hand is stretched forth to prevent, will soon fade away and gradually die. And as he has been successively

slipping off one burden of responsibility after another, the teacher, urged by society at large (i.e., parents in the mass) has picked them up.

Some one said to me yesterday, "Well, I suppose you school-ma'ams will be asking for greater powers, more privileges ; you always do when you have a convention."

A London board-school boy wrote, "The Indians in Canada walked long distances through the woods to the Hudson's Bay Forts to change their hides." Now, I protest that I didn't come all the way to Winnipeg for any such purpose, and always my voice has risen in the market-place not for more but for fewer blessings. The teacher of the old school looked after the intellectual needs of his pupil for five hours a day, and then the parent, the church, and society at large had their turn at the pupil. To-day an impartial observer would think that the five hours of school was the only period of a child's mental activity, that he remained comatose for the rest of his time—for every one with a teaching mission makes his demand of the child during these five teaching hours. The progressive doctor, the preacher, the moral reformer, the specialist of varieties manifold, demand with a "stand and deliver" insistence that his particular fad shall be accorded a place, and withal a place of prominence on our already much "enriched" school programme.

It is not long since a meeting of the Evangelical clergy in the New England states decided that morals must be taught in our schools. They recommended a series of set homilies to be delivered by the teacher in daily instalments. The reverend gentlemen seemed to think that morality is to be inculcated by preaching, a not unnatural conclusion, perhaps, for preachers to arrive at; but the implication that morality is not now taught is calculated to startle the thoughtful teacher.

What we need in our schools, whether private or public, is not catechism but religion; not definitions, but life; not a teaching of religion for half an hour along with reading, writing and arithmetic, not a fourth R added to the other three R's; but the spirit of self-control, reverence and kindliness in both teachers and pupils. And of this spirit neither Roman Catholic nor Protestant, neither Christian nor Jew has a monopoly. The public schools cannot teach theology; but theology is not important to good citizenship.

Long ago the medical men decided that the welfare of the country demanded that a regular system of physical training should be introduced into our public schools. It was done. Then the W.C.T.U.

has succeeded in introducing into the schools the formal teaching of the effects of alcohol. A child now is to be kept in the narrow way of self-restraint by dangling before him a hob-nailed liver, and by intimidating him with visions of the tobacco-heart. He trembles and joins the Band of Hope.

The S.P.C.A. bears down upon us with the seductive badges of the Bands of Mercy. What more fitting place than the school-room for teaching love for the cat on the domestic hearth and the honest watch-dog in the back yard? True, these faithful animals belong to the home rather than the school. But the child can be taught to entice them with him to the school-room, and the "adaptable" teacher, the versatile one, can no doubt use Carlo and the cat not only to point a moral and adorn a tale for the S.P.C.A.—she might make a "nature study," perhaps, of one of them, and give a five minute anatomy lesson on the other. Reading, writing and arithmetic are old-fashioned. They can wait.

Last year the British Columbia Council of Women was all agog for domestic science. When I, opening my eastern windows which look towards the sun, saw the procession of cooking stoves and stew pans, carpenters' benches and jack planes heading for the school-room door, I lifted up a feeble wail for mercy. In this whole Council of Women I found no friend. I was anathema and ultra-conservative. I was unprogressive and lazy. Did I not know that cooking was a good thing, a most necessary thing? And shouldn't the school course be enriched?

"British Columbia is a new country," says one superintendent of education, "The children should be taught agriculture. You see the little fellows will study all about soils and weeds and ensilage, and the raising of prize stock and the rotation of crops; and then they will go home and round the family table they will let fall crumbs of knowledge which their fathers will pick up and afterwards reduce to practice in their daily lives; and so wisdom and knowledge will increase." This is actual fact that I am stating. This argument was used in sober earnest, and the people who used it had the power, and the subject of agriculture was added to our school course, and the text books were put into the hands of the children; but, alas, the books had been compiled for Ontario, and they told of Ontario soils and warned against Ontario weeds, and, somehow, neither teacher nor farmer seemed to be able to adjust them to the longitude of British Columbia, and so agriculture dropped out of the course.

Sewing guilds and Delsarte demonstrators clamour for the chance to enrich our programmes, while piping in between them is heard the sweet voice of the tonic sol-fa-ist. The teacher having served a life sentence of eating, drinking, dressing and looking cheerful on $40 a month, is now made the custodian of the children's pennies. Who better fitted than she to inculcate thrift and show how low living and high thinking lead inevitably to Wall Street and the Waldorf-Astoria?

You can't open you school-room door for a breath of fresh air without letting some one with a mission fall in. In the primary schools the breastworks are weak, the missionaries of the new learning have broken in and possess the land—it is the period there of clay-muddling and dickey-bird drawing, one-sum-a-week, sweet thoughts, and spelling acquired incidentally—the Fauntleroys mould daschunds out of mud and the on-looking parents imbibe the principles of high art:—"We educate the parents through the children," smile the missionaries, "and school-room life should be one long sweet song."

I suppose I will offend again when I say that I have little sympathy with that school of educators who would remove from a child's path all difficulties and make it ever for him plain sailing. The tendency to sentimentalism in our age is, I know, constantly seeking excuses for not doing unpleasant things. Text books and school journals tell us how to keep our pupils wide awake and interested so that they may need no rules. This may be very pleasant for the time being for all concerned, but there is no discipline in it. There are hard duties in citizenship, and I contend that the habit of always expecting to be pleased and interested while a child, does not help the man or woman to do earnest work in hard places. There can be no discipline unless the child learns to do unpleasant things because they are right.

And this valuable discipline our primary schools in the new regime, too often, I think, fail to give. This is one reason why Bertie is not always received with open arms when the Grammar School takes him in. In a world where accuracy rules and thoroughness is a sine qua non, he is a depreciated currency..

> They taught him how to hemstitch, and they taught him how to sing,
> And how to make a basket out of variegated string,
> And how to fold a paper so it wouldn't hurt his thumb;
> They taught a lot to Bertie, *but he could'nt do a sum.*

They taught him how to mould the head of Hercules in clay,
And how to tell the difference 'twixt the bluebird and the jay;
And how to sketch a horsie in a little picture frame;
But strangely they *forgot to teach him how to spell his name.*

In the Primary Schools arithmetic and spelling have gone by the board; it is unpedagogic now to teach the multiplication table and spelling is to be learned incidentally. In the Grammar Schools we lead a Jekyll and Hyde existence—we strive to teach all the old subjects in the poor remnants of time left us after the innovations have had their will. In my own school ten per cent. of each week is given to physical and military drill, another ten per cent. is claimed at the Domestic Science and Manual Training Schools—Nature Study nibbles away its precious fraction, while music lessons, Sunday-School entertainments and social duties claim the much distracted pupils at the very stroke of the dismissal hour, and home-lessons are at a discount.

The school-room stands wide open. The teacher and the receptive children within, panting like gold-fish for a little air; are they not fair game for the wise men from the East and the West and the North and the South, and the eight and twenty other points of the compass? The truth is the large numbers of children gathered daily into school-rooms form tempting fields easy of access to every hobby horse rider for the introduction of what each considers the sine qua non for reforming the world. One of the most difficult phases of the teacher's profession is the fact that the teacher more than any other worker is at the mercy of theorists. No one gets more gratuitous advice than she does. Every one you meet is willing to tell you how to do your work—they are just bubbling over with recipes of "how to do it." Parsons keep a regular supply of sermons for our use. City editors, when they run short of subjects for the Sunday sermonette, just turn their attention to "these well-paid and certainly not over-worked teachers." "Children are not patriotic," they say, "and the teacher is to blame." What is the effect on the teacher, of all this public badgering? Here and there is found a worm who (like the new-paying worm in "Red Pottage") ventures to turn. For the most part, the teacher (who is of a long-suffering race) accepts the editor's reproof, plunges wildly into Ladysmith and Mafeking processions, marshalls her pupils into triumphal columns, drags the feeble from under horses' hoofs, and in defence of her charges engages in hand to hand conflicts with mobs and trampling hordes.

And the parents, the natural protectors, one would think, of their own offspring, view the conflict from afar off and smile approval from their sheltered coigns of vantage, while the editor leans back in his carriage, smokes a committee cigar, and thinks what a grand thing patriotism is.

Again, to satisfy some one's love of display, school children are made a part of many public functions. I have been ordered out with my pupils to help celebrate—the bringing in of a first railway train and the laying of hospital foundations. We have formed part of an agricultural exhibition (we were not told to which section we were supposed peculiarly to belong). Jammed in between the fire brigade and Adgie and the lions, we have helped to swell patriotic processions; and once, at the sword's point, was I ordered to marshall my class forth to join the pageant of a politician's public funeral—the occasion was not without its features of grim humor as the children blissfully innocent of any incongruity solaced themselves during a long wait with bun-bites and surreptitious oranges.

Now, well do I know that I will be called an obstructionist. I see it coming by more than one determined eye in front of me, so I want clearly to define my position with regard to these Bands of Mercy, Bands of Hope, W.C.T.U.'s and S.P.C.A.'s; this sewing, sawing and swimming, straw-weaving, rope-splicing, wood-splitting, cooking, and tonic sol-fa. Some of them I know to be good in themselves, and the rest may be. But this is not the question which confronts us. Five hours is a period of time with mathematical limitations. You can't crowd something new into it, without crowding something old out. Already the ground work subjects have suffered of necessity. We have "enriched" our course at the expense of thoroughness.

We pretend to teach that which it is an impossibility, equally mental and physical, for us to teach in the limited time at our disposal. I speak not for myself. I would fain be a special pleader for the child; as his delegate, I in all earnestness ask; "Is it not time for some one to cry a halt and let the reasoning faculties draw the breath of life?"

In the school, as elsewhere in this busy world of emulation, of turmoil and competition, we attempt too much—eagerness takes the place of earnestness;—and we are out of touch with the good old-fashioned virtues of thoughtfulness and thoroughness.

The cure? If we have fallen into error let us acknowledge it.

Put back the clock. Lop off the enrichments (I had almost said excrescences), and get back to simpler conditions. Attempt less, and if we only teach a little, let us teach that little philosophically, livingly and lovingly, and (shall I say it?) trust your teachers a little more, oh, parents individually, school boards and framers of programmes. Almost every theorist under the sun has been allowed to curtail the teacher's usefulness by binding him down to cast-iron programmes and by courses of study.

The real teacher, and by this I mean one who looks beyond the mere passing of examinations and satisfying of the "powers that be," to a tribunal that deals with the roots of things and to whom mere externals and pretences are abhorrent, is longing and hungering to do real teaching. Give her a chance and see how willingly she will throw off the shackles of grind and cram.

For my own part I have been reckless enough this past year to leave the regular course for days at a time to look after itself, while together my pupils and I explored the by-ways of literature and had many a comfortable talk together, talks which, although not labelled "instructive and profitable," served to make us better friends.

Nine-tenths of our teachers to-day would do the same thing if you'll only let them. I say, give them the chance.

Look back over your own school days. Who was the teacher for whom you entertain the kindliest feelings—the one who most influenced your life? It wasn't that teacher who held you off at arm's length, and in allopathic doses administered the school course to you straight. It was the one who got at your inner self and let you see a little bit of his own in the process. Again, in throwing the whole work of teaching on the school, I feel that there is danger in depriving the home of its legitimate influence. Children of this generation are losing a something that nothing else in the world can supply. Their busy, over-crowded school lives are robbing them of that direct mother-influence which belonged to us of the last generation of children. The quiet, heart to heart chat at the end of the day's work, the children's hour, is it not slipping away?

Is it permissible for me, I wonder, to speak about mothers to mothers? May an old maid do so without presumption? Then let me say that if I were one of the mothers of these days, I would be jealous of my influence with my children—I would be loath to give so much of it up to the teacher. Educating children in the mass has its advantages, but it is the family, not the fifty children in a school grade,

which forms the unit of national greatness, and God's own plan is the family plan. A mother can, if she will, do more in foundation character building for the child in those first and only years when she represents to him the law of life, than any teacher can ever hope to do afterwards. Don't be too eager to pass your little ones on to the nation's nurseries, the kindergarten and the primary school. Your child will in his school journey have many teachers and they will, some more and some less, influence his life, but he has and can have but one mother. Mothers, some of them, are queer. There are some inexplicable points about them. I have studied the subject (from an exoteric standpoint) for years and there are some things that I cannot understand. One is the attitude of that mother who, when you are trying with all earnestness to strengthen the moral fibre of her child, thrusts herself in between the child and the natural consequence of his own acts with a note of this tenor; "Miss Cameron, please excuse Johnny for being late; excuse him from his home work; don't keep him in after school; don't punish him for anything at any time. Let him out of school at half past two, excuse him for all his delinquencies past, present and to come, shut your eyes to everything that is wrong, take pretence for performance, and in short, Miss Cameron, make yourself one of a partnership of three to call wrong right and right wrong."

This is not a picture over-drawn. An instance occurred in my own school two months ago which has given me much thought. A bright boy in our next to highest class was absent from school on the eve of a holiday. I sent a note to the house immediately after roll-call, but got no reply. After the holiday the boy returned duly armed with "an excuse" stating that he had been kept home. I was not satisfied with the tenor of the note and at the noon hour sent my First Assistant to the boy's mother to get particulars. The mother then acknowledged that the boy had been playing truant, had gone swimming "up the arm." Upon receiving my note she was much distressed—she was a widow and her husband's will had left two trustees to help her manage her estate and counsel her in up-bringing her family. She dressed, and, taking my note, went down town to consult those gentlemen, representative business men both. And these three after calm deliberation concluded that the best thing to do was to write a note to me that the boy had been kept home, and warn him that it mustn't occur again—for, if he was to be punished severely at school for playing truant, he would never want to go back.

As I say, this case has given me much thought. Here three well educated, thoughtful people, one the mother who had brought the boy into the world, and two others, men who had accepted the responsibility of helping that mother bring up her sons, deliberately compounded a felony. Why? One whose daily business it is to deal with boys and mothers can readily answer. The boy simply issued his ultimatum:—"If you don't give me the note, I won't go back;" and this is no isolated case; in nine-tenths of our homes the same conditions obtain—the children rule, they enjoy unrestrained freedom of action, and they, not the parents, lay down the conditions. "I'll bring in the wood, if you'll let me go to the ball game." "I'm to be kept in to-day. If you don't give me a note to get out at two, I won't go to school."

A sort of unnatural alliance is thus formed, the boy and his mother in a close partnership to soften an implacable teacher, for, as home discipline becomes less and less tangible, to preserve the balance of power the school-teacher must be inexorable, otherwise chaos in the body politic. For mine own part, I object. I don't think Nature intended me for an Ogre. My school is on the borders of a Park. A mother was taking her little one, aged three, to see the swans. Outside the school fence the kiddie balked, sat down on the side-walk and refused to budge. "Come, Gertie, come quick with mother, or Miss Cameron will get you." What have I done to be placed in the same category with the pound-man and the hangman? Excellent officers both, and making for the peace of the commonwealth—but I'd rather, oh, so much rather, assume to healthy boyhood the role of guide, philosopher and friend.

The mothers and fathers who would place themselves between a child and the natural consequences of his own mis-doing (and their name is Legion, for they are many), are guilty of the cruellest folly. Their unnatural attitude must result in keen disappointment and undoing when the child learns in the sterner school of the world of men and women that surely and without one deviation does the great Father enforce His rule, "as a man sows, so must he reap." I think it is Goldsmith who says, "There is often the truest tenderness in well-timed severity."

There should be the fullest trust between parents and teacher. That there is not is not always the fault of the parent; for there are teachers *and* teachers. If I were a mother I should want to know the teacher into whose care I was turning over my little one for more

than one half of his waking hours. And I should want to thoroughly know her, too. I wouldn't be at all curious about her family history —it would be a matter of equal indifference if her father had been a doctor or her grandfather a ditcher. I wouldn't exercise myself about finding out what church she attended, or what names were on her calling list. The question of "caste" would not trouble me. But I should want to know what she was doing in the world, what she was thinking about, what she was teaching and why she was teaching it,—just what she stood for in the busy ranks of the world's workers. And if I couldn't approve of her, I would not leave my little ones in her care. If I found in her a woman to esteem and respect (we might differ on a thousand matters if we were one on vital things), it seems to me that I would try hard to make a warm personal friend of her. If I could not succeed in this (and friendship is a tender plant which refuses to be forced), I would at least be loyal to her; I trust I would not be guilty of the bad form of discussing her actions and questioning her methods, or of permitting others to do so, in the presence of my children; and I would honestly try to strengthen her hands in every possible way. And why not? Is not the teacher the mother's substitute for the time being—her full working-partner?

I'm a teacher and I'm not a parent, but I have more sense than to declare all parents incompetent and all teachers divinely fit for the work they have undertaken. A teacher needs a full knowledge of the subjects she is to teach—the examiners for teachers' certificates see to her equipment here. She needs power to impart that knowledge, it is this faculty the Normal Schools essay to teach her; but she needs, if she is to get close enough to her pupils to influence them for good, a something else, difficult to define but so necessary that if she fails here she fails altogether. You may call it camaraderie, or good fellowship, or sympathy, or divine afflatus, it really is love of the race, a recognition of the fact that we are not all black or all white but a mingled gray, not sheep or goats, any of us, but rather *moral alpacas*, a something between a sheep and a goat. Every one who would be a power to influence the race must have this God-given insight. Cecil Rhodes recognized this when he gave his coveted scholarships not to the book-worm or the polished classic but to the student who knows how to play and who has the qualities of a leader among men.

The teacher gifted with this subtle power will succeed, without it she may go square circles, she will never be a leader of children.

I have no quarrel with the latest fad of the faddist, "Nature Study;" properly taught, it brings us back to first principles, but one face of it is better than all the other sides combined, the humanitarian face of it that deals with *human* nature. Gathering rocks and watching beans sprout and investigating the antecedents of the Codlin moth are not without interest, but we hunt big game in the West, and I would be willing to leave rats and mice and such small deer to the laboratory and the museum, and give my study to the most fascinating animal God has made, *a live boy.*

Children are far more interesting than grown people; and if you don't really feel this your place is not in a school-room—and if you stay you must be a leader. Oh, for a Superintendent wise enough and strong enough to weed out the weaklings. Children have rights and one inalienable right is that of being governed, wisely governed. It is a silly mistake to think that children like to be indulged, and confronted by a perennial smile. Do you remember Kipling's "orf'cer bhoy" who had charge of the big drunk draf' and who by sheer force of will power, unaided carried them to the transport ship? He had the innate power of ruling, described by Mulvaney as having "bowels," which drew from that worthy the appreciation, "Let me die in glory; I've seen a *man* this day!"

Do we half appreciate, I wonder, what the children do for us daily? We talk of "educating the child," ignoring the fact that he does more for us than we are ever privileged to do for him, and dull are we indeed if he does not in the highest and deepest sense of the word educate us. The least we can do in return is to drop patronizing airs and treat him with the same respect that we would receive—we bring him a message from a milestone farther on in life's journey, let it be a word of good cheer, remembering that it is the feet of him that bringeth glad tidings that are beautiful.

On the theory of a close union between parent and teacher we are all agreed. How about the practice? Do we as teachers try to bring about this desired union? I have found parents ready to respond to any initiative on our part. Friday afternoon gatherings from time to time are eagerly attended; and recently in Victoria we have founded a very live and vigorous Mothers' Club—it meets fortnightly in one of the Ward School buildings and parents from every district in the city attend it. I really think it is the most cosmopolitan society in Victoria. At the last meeting I attended, the chair was taken by a cultured woman, wife of a Presbyterian missionary to

the Chinese, herself a converted Jewess; a Socialist lady held forth on the subject of single tax, while the President of a Theosophical Society passed round the tea! (Trying hard to live up to the broad views of my surroundings, I presented Rudyard Kipling as an authority on pedagogics.)

This Mothers' Club is largely made up of those who do not belong to the leisure classes—these mothers bearing their babies in their arms enjoy the meetings as a social function—it does them good and they do good to the teachers.

Just one thought and I am done. I put it forth in no captious spirit; indeed, it is with extreme diffidence that I touch upon it at all. It is this: Parents allow their children to grow away from them; and too often just at the time when boys and girls have arrived at the borders of manhood and womanhood, at the time of all times when they feel the need of counsel of a personal nature, parents and children find themselves miles apart. I can best explain what I mean by speaking of my own experience, and I trust that you will excuse the ever-recurring personal pronoun. At different times I have had boys and girls come to me with troubles and questions of a personal nature, confidences too sacred to touch upon here; and after we had been freely talking together, I have asked, "How about your home people, have you talked it over with any one there?" The reply generally is, "No, I don't like to talk to my mother about it."

Now, I speak from my own point of view, of course; isn't something wrong somewhere? Does not the mother, busy and crowded though her life may be, who in following after the many lines of present-day activities fails to keep in close touch with her children, allow something to drift out of her life, the loss of which nothing else in the world can replace? And the pity of it is that confidence is such a subtle something! We can't let it slip one day and go back and pick it up the next.

Before closing I would say that as a teacher, personally, I have much to thank the parents for. Indeed, the friendships which have meant the most to me in life have come to me through the schoolroom. My lines have fallen in pleasant places, and I am truly grateful. And with this I am done. I cannot and will not write platitudes on this subject, and, after all, that which we feel most deeply is the thing which we never put in words. If I have seemed to speak lightly in any wise of the work to which I have put my hand, attribute it to an unhappy trick of manner. We can't touch human nature

at its full warm pulse as is our fearful privilege day by day without being the better for it.

Like tides on a crescent sea-beach,
  When the moon is new and thin,
Into our hearts high yearnings
  Come welling and surging in—
Come from the mystic ocean,
  Whose rim no foot has trod—
Some of us call it Longing
  And others call it God.

A picket frozen on duty—
  A mother starved for her brood—
Socrates drinking the hemlock,
  And Jesus on the rood;
And millions, who, humble and nameless,
  The straight hard pathway trod—
Some call it Consecration
  And others call it God.

A PLEA FOR SYSTEMATIC SCHOOL MUSIC IN CANADA.

LAURENCE H. J. MINCHIN, WINNIPEG, MAN.

[Supervisor of Music.]

According to the programme this is an address on "Music in Canadian Schools" but on looking over what I have written I fancy some such title as "A Plea for Systematic School Music" would be more appropriate; in any case I dare say I shall be pardoned for rather having run riot when dealing with a subject in which I take such a deep interest and that comes so close home to me.

I have endeavoured to find out to what extent music is taught at present in the various provinces, and after giving you the result of my inquiries I shall adventure a plea for music as a regular part of the curriculum and try to suggest reasonable methods by which it can be handled.

The sea has generally been regarded as a means of inspiration for the poet and singer, but it would appear that on our Canadian shores the sea air has not such a beneficial effect, at all events on our educational institutions; as far as I can learn, in New Brunswick music is allowed in the schools where practicable, but not actually prescribed; in Prince Edward Island it is practically non-existent; in Nova Scotia it is mentioned in the programme but is not systematic, though I understand steps are being taken now for a more thorough study of the subject; similarly in British Columbia the Pacific would seem to convey no more musical inspiration than the Atlantic, but the advent of Mr. Argue from the warbling wavelets of the Red River has brought tune to the ocean billows and a regular system of school music is to be inaugurated.

I am under an obligation to Dr. Parmalee for very exact information as to what is being done in the two school systems in the Province of Quebec. I quote the memorandum he was good enough to send me verbatim.

"Inasmuch as there are two systems of schools, Roman Catholic

and Protestant, in the province with different courses of study it will be best to consider the teaching of singing with reference to each system separately.

In the Protestant Normal School all teachers-in-training study and practice vocal music under a competent instructor who teaches by the Tonic Sol-Fa method.

The limits of the course are "Part songs and rudiments of harmony. Second grade staff Notation Certificate of Tonic Sol-Fa College.'

"The Normal School course extends over nine months for the model school class, or eighteen if the advanced elementary diploma is taken first. In the last Normal School report I find that 18 out of 42 pupils succeeded in taking their intermediate or their second grade staff certificates, or both, while in the kindergarten class six out of seven took their certificates. In the advanced elementary class 25 out of 63 took their elementary and first grade staff certificates. In the elementary class, which takes only a four months' course 11 out of 50 took elementary certificates .

"As all the Protestant teachers of the province since 1899 have been obliged to take a Normal School course they have all had opportunities of learning to sing and to teach singing by the Tonic Sol-Fa method.

"Considering that many teachers who could not qualify for their certificates can still do something in the way of teaching, it can safely be said that a large proportion of the Protestant teachers are competent to teach vocal music. The course of study for elementary schools calls for the teaching of singing, but does not prescribe any definite course for the rural schools.

"In Montreal and in Sherbrooke singing is well taught and the results are satisfactory. In Montreal preference is given to teachers who can teach singing, and their salaries are scaled ten dollars higher per annum as a recognition of the importance of teaching their own pupils. Classes are so managed that the most successful teachers of singing take the classes of those who are less capable in this subject. The instructor in the Normal School is the director of singing in the Protestant schools of Montreal.

"If the teaching of singing is satisfactory in the city schools the same cannot be said of the subject in the rural schools or in the schools in the villages and towns. In all of these there is singing, but it is mostly rote work and is mostly confined to hymns for open-

ing exercises and to patriotic songs. Almost invariably the pupils and teacher sing in unison. Part songs, if heard at all, are sung by older pupils at closing exercises, and the ability to sing them must be credited to private teaching. The Tonic Sol-Fa notation is used.

"In all the Roman Catholic Normal Schools singing is taught by special instructor. The staff notation is employed and the 'plein chant' is taught. The Sol-Fa method is not employed at all. The rudiments of harmony, part singing, and sight reading are required. The usual proportion of pupils, in such circumstances, become capable of teaching vocal music.

"In all the convents and classical colleges special provision is made for the teaching of music. The services of the Roman Catholic Church being largely choral much attention is paid to singing in the higher schools in order to fit the young men for church choirs.

"In the elementary schools singing is not called for by the course of study, but is used to enliven school work and for opening and closing exercises.

"What is said about Protestant elementary schools in this connection applies very well to the Roman Catholic elementary schools.

"On the whole the teaching of singing in the elementary rural schools leaves much to be desired."

I am obliged to Mr. A. T. Cringan, Mus. Bac., for the following information as to the work in Ontario. The Normal Schools at Toronto, Ottawa and London, have each of them a special teacher of music, and the subject has its place in the examination; the programme provides for two lessons of forty-five minutes each per week; the lines of work laid down in the syllabus are broad but not very definite, and no particular system is prescribed.

In the public schools the matter is left to the will of the different school boards; in Toronto, Hamilton, London, Brantford, and some of the smaller cities a special supervisor is employed.

Mr. Cringan considers that on the whole the subject is progressing favourably in his province; of course the good work that Mr. Cringan has accomplished himself in Toronto with the Tonic Sol-Fa system is well known.

In the North-West Territories the subject is regularly taught in the Normal School by a specialist (our friend Miss Rankin, who is artist as well as musician), and the examination for certificates

includes music both written and oral. The subject is fairly well taught in the towns, but, like everywhere else, very little is done in the country. A regular system of music is prescribed.

In our own province school music became a very live subject when Miss Carrie E. Day (now Mrs. Baker) was appointed musical instructor in the Winnipeg schools on March 17th, 1890. Through Miss Day's energy and ability the work prospered so that in 1892 the subject was placed on the programme of studies by the advisory board, and it now forms part of the examination for entrance to the High School and also for teachers' certificates both professional and non-professional. In Winnipeg and Brandon special supervisors are employed and in all the towns the work is very fairly carried out; in the rural schools the problem of getting efficient work in music has not been thoroughly worked out yet, but there is a decided advance every year not only in the quantity but also in the quality of the work done, and the effect of what is done in the towns penetrates further through the country districts.

Taking Canadian schools then, as a whole, we can scarcely claim to have put music on that footing in our school work which can quite reasonably be claimed for it; and this being the case it may not be out of place for me to make an apology for school music. I might also add this:—As is well known there has been a very large influx to Winnipeg from all parts of Canada during the last year, and we have new pupils in our schools continually from all possible places, but it is most exceptional to find one that has had any previous instruction in music in school.

The first of the three R's is reading, and this subject is certainly not taught merely for utilitarian purposes, but almost principally that the pupil may gain free intercourse with the beautiful and artistic that is to be found in good literature, *e.g.* the selections in our readers are beautiful rather than instructive, we may find a chapter from Dickens but we are not likely to have a selection from a manual on bookkeeping. So also, reading music opens the way to the most beautiful and complete expression of ourself that is possible. If it is our duty to teach the beautiful in literature because it is beautiful, much more so it is our duty to teach the beautiful in music, the only earthly enjoyment which we are given to understand is high and pure and good enough to be found in the life hereafter. Now if we may take it for granted that it is a good thing for the average man or woman to have a sufficient knowledge of music

to appreciate it intelligently, it is very important that that knowledge should first be obtained in childhood.

What a common regret that is "If only I had learnt music when I was a child!" A child, from infancy, is very sympathetic to music, finds a natural enjoyment in it, and frequently endeavours spontaneously to produce music for itself though more often in the direction of rhythm than melody. This tendency, if nurtured is easily developed, but on the other hand, if not carried on, is liable to become repressed, and the dormant faculty is a difficult one to awaken in later years.

Let us then consider shortly what may be done in our school music, and the best way to do it. Broadly speaking our aim is that the pupil on leaving school, should be able to sing at sight any composition of average difficulty, and should have acquired a reasonably educated taste in music from a knowledge of standard selections corresponding to the selections from standard literature found in the readers. While the enthusiast may think my view lacks ambition and would aim at greater things, still I am assured that from the practical point of view, the best results will be obtained (at all events at present in Canada) by being moderate in our demands, but getting the work done.

Music can of course only claim its own share, there are several other subjects which have to receive some attention during the school day; if too much is required in music the not very enthusiastic teacher is likely to shelve it altogether, whereas a reasonable demand will obtain general attention.

The subject should be taught regularly by the ordinary teacher in the ordinary course, if possible under special supervision. The intermittent lessons given by one music teacher going from school to school for that purpose are, by themselves, entirely unsatisfactory; it is *very, very* true in music that practice makes perfect, and the practice must be regular, the lessons daily.

Here the question arises at once, how are teachers going to teach a subject of which a large number of them know nothing; and again the old lamentation arises "If only I had learnt music as a child." But if it is often difficult for an adult to learn to sing, who has never attempted to do so since infancy, and has let that faculty grow torpid, or nearly die, still the power to appreciate the sounds produced by others and to detect errors is fairly easily acquired; the theory necessary for the school work, especially for

the first few years, is very simple; and let us recollect the old truism that the best way to learn a thing is to teach it It is quite an established fact that a competent teacher can teach music as successfully as any other subject, irrespective of individual musical ability, and, more than that, a good teacher, who may be incapable of singing a note herself, will get better results than a teacher naturally musical, but of inferior ability.

We have had practical experience of this in Winnipeg; all our teachers take their own music with a visit from the supervisor once in three weeks. Some of our best work is done by teachers who knew practically nothing about music till they had to teach it, but they are good teachers.

About the teacher that cannot sing: (and I should like to say that absolute disability to sing is about as frequent as deafness or blindness) the principal difficulty for the teacher that cannot sing is in Primary work, where rote songs should constitute such a large portion of the music; still we have teachers doing entirely successful work in Primary Music though they have to depend on individual children or other teachers to teach their class rote songs.

Let me say this too; there is music in every class, as there is latent electricity in a piece of iron; you have only got to set it at work and you get either the electricity from the iron, or the music from the class; the simile may be carried further, for the more music the class produces, the more that music will produce, and it progresses by leaps and bounds.

For the purpose of introducing music into any school system it would seem that the Normal School, even if it does not profess to do academic work, might in such an emergency give the necessary instruction to enable teachers to take up the work as far as the third year in school, say the First Reader. That much accomplished, the work practically carries itself along, and the teachers progress with the pupils.

There is another point to be considered; the subject is no longer in its infancy, and though there is undoubtedly large room for improvement on many points, still school music as I call it has been thoroughly systematised, and there are quite a number of excellent methods published differing more or less in details, but agreeing in general outline; consequently in the event of the first introduction of music on any school programme even if the subject be new to the teachers and pioneer work may have to be done, still the machinery

is at hand, well proved and practical, it is only necessary to make a choice of which particular series of readers and charts appear to be most suitable.

There are, of course, two different schools of teaching to be reckoned with, the Tonic Sol-Fa and Staff Notation; I am a Staff Notation man, and perhaps may be forgiven for making a plea for my preference. Without doubt capital work can be done in school with the Tonic Sol-Fa, and wonderful results shown at concerts; but on the other hand the pupils are learning a notation which is not generally used; only a limited amount of vocal music is published in Tonic Sol-Fa and (as far as I know) scarcely any instrumental music; my one objection to the Tonic Sol-Fa system is that its usefulness is so limited for general musical work; the average hymn book or opera that you pick up is not in Tonic Sol-Fa; I consider that one might as well teach children to read from Greek characters instead of our own alphabets.

The method is most ingenious but only of real value as part of an educational system when it is combined with the ordinary staff notation, and then it cannot escape comparison with the ordinary moveable Do Staff Notation systems, where the pupil becomes familiar with the generally conventional representation of music from his second year at school, instead of going through an unnecessary course in another notation first.

There is one more point I should like to advance in favour of school music, though it may possibly appear to be somewhat far-fetched.

I am by birth an Englishman, and was educated at an English school and Oxford; perhaps one of the strongest instincts that you drink in, in English public school life is that of "esprit de corps," love of your school, city or community; the feeling that impels a man to any exertion or sacrifice for the glory of the body of which he is part, without the slightest idea of any personal gain or kudos. In a new country it is only natural that this feeling should not be so commonly met with; we, or our fathers, did not come out here to enjoy ourselves, but because we had to make a living, and each of us has had to elbow his way for himself without a great deal of time to devote to the community.

Now the singing in school is essentially a matter of working for the good of the whole; it is the general blending and balance of the voices that produces the desired effect, a voice that asserts it-

self is on a level with the football player that makes a showy run but won't pass; the efficient members of a chorus must be unselfish, and agreeable to self effacement.

I may add that this is an actual experience in my own career in coming in contact with choirs and choruses, that the men and women you find in their ranks are generally unselfish and public spirited.

May I be allowed a last word: Music is good enough to be taught for its own sake, and has no need to look for an excuse or explanation from the words which may accompany it. While it is most desirable that the words of a song should be beautiful and intelligible, still an inspired strain of music will be enjoyed in spite of any balderdash in the way of words that may be tacked on to it; while on the other hand the most beautiful poem that David or Tennyson ever conceived may be killed by trying to yoke it to incongruous music.

Examples are redundant:—Some lovely aria that is demanded for use in church, but the words are secular; the ordinary formula is observed of adapting "sacred words" to it, but as a matter of fact the words are not regarded, the music is what reaches us.

The song that appeals to the little ones in a primary room is, as often as not, one of which they have no idea of the meaning of the words but they have taken in the lilt of the music; this is very noticeable with foreign children on first coming to an English speaking school.

Was there ever a song yet that earned popularity or provoked enthusiasm by its words alone? How much gibberish is enthused over, and not altogether outside of the churches, because the feelings are carried away by the music!

If music is not worth doing for its own sake it certainly is not worth doing at all; but let it prove its own worth, from all ages that we have record of, and as we are led to believe, to all eternity, from the deepest grief to the acme of bliss, the most complete expression of Himself that God has given to man.

PHYSICAL TRAINING.

N. J. Jewett, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

[Physical Instructor in Y.M.C.A.]

It gives me sincere pleasure to come before this audience with this subject. An audience representing such immense possibilities of influence upon the future of this young and vigorous Canada. A subject which in the past has received far too little attention; which at present is occupying the awakened interest of educators; which in the future, we believe, is to hold a large place in our system of education.

The claim of originality is not made for the ideas embodied in this paper. It is rather a compilation, an attempt to gather together the best thought of the best minds on the subject. It is impossible to give due credit for every idea but all quotations will be indicated with their sources.

Let us glance for a moment at some of the reasons for the physical training of school children. This familiar ground cannot be trodden too often while there remain members of school boards or parents unfamiliar with it.

The present form of the human body is the result of we know not how many thousands of years of muscular activity. Each of our numerous muscles has been supplied in its present form as a direct answer to an absolute demand. Each organ of digestion, of circulation, of respiration, has been formed to work under conditions of constant muscular activity. The processes of metabolism depend on this activity for their healthful accomplishment. In comparison with the ages that all this has been taking place, our present form of life has begun but yesterday. The great movement toward city life is a strictly modern phenomenon. Important as some adequate form of physical education is to the country child, it is doubly so to the inhabitant of the city. The artificial life of the city, its confinement, lack of contact with the soil and the elements, makes some form of artificial exercise essential to a development of a full manhood and womanhood.

Very specially this applies to the period of growth. Regarding the special demand of the child for activity let me quote from a paper by Mr. M. V. O'Shea in the American Physical Education Review, (Vol. 9, No. 1, page 33).

"These conceptions of human nature which are given us by modern science suggest, I think, the function of physical training in an educational regimen. In the first place an effective system of physical training would provide opportunity for the child, in early years especially, to live a motor life quite largely. It seems to me this is the first need of modern times for which physical culture teachers, as well as educational theorists, ought to endeavour to provide. Modern civilization is very hard upon the child. Nature did not make him so that he could adapt himself easily and healthfully from the very beginning to the restrictions of urban life. His growing organism requires activity not only of the mind, but of muscle; but society is organized to prevent him from doing what nature impels him to do."

With reference to the child's demand for activity from a nervous standpoint, I quote from the same article:

"The neurologist says the child's brain is so organized that the energy resulting from the metabolism of nerve cells flows into motor nerves and tends to energize muscles. If muscular action be largely prevented, then the energy piles up in motor centers, as it were, and creates tension and distress, which is shown in that worst of all school maladies, restlessness. You cannot keep a normal child perfectly still. If you should tie his muscles you would kill him in a brief space."

With regard to the effect of school life especially Mr. D. A. Sargent, of Harvard College, in a paper read at the Physical Training Conference, 1889, found on page 75 of the report, writes as follows:—"Most occupations, including that of the student, tend to over-use the flexor muscles, and to compress and constrict the body thus lessening its internal capacity and interfering with the functions of important organs." (D. A. Sargent, Physical Training Conference, '89, page 75.) Also in the same article. "All tetanized movements such as holding weights, attitudinizing, standing or sitting in a constrained position, etc., tend to impair the tone of the muscles, by interfering with the nutrition of both muscles and nerves." (D. A. Sargent, P.T.C., Page 75.)

Thus far we have been dealing entirely with hygienic con-

siderations. In this connection Dr. Hamilton Wey says: "A healthy and social dunce is a more agreeable member of a household than an educated neurasthenic versed in the sciences and familiar with all languages, past and present." (Dr. Hamilton Wey, P.T.C., '89. Page 103.)

If the hygienic effect were the complete case in favour of the physical training of school children much more attention than is at present given it would be justified.

The popular mind is much more familiar with the hygienic view of the matter than with the educational, therefore we ought to familiarize ourselves especially with the latter.

Physical training is entirely a matter of muscle, outwardly and the importance of muscle is commonly overlooked. Just remember that without the present functions of muscle a living being would be like a disembodied intelligent spirit imprisoned in the center of a rock. There would be positively no communication with other intelligence. All communication by spoken or written words, gestures, expression of countenance or the glance of an eye depends upon muscle. It is the organ of the will. How much depends upon rendering our line of communication effective?

Relating to the distinctly educational reasons for physical training let me quote extensively from an address by Mr. E. M. Hartwell before the Physical Training Conference, Boston, 1889. The page numbers refer to the volume of the report edited by Isabel C. Barrows. "My main contention in regard to the nature of physical training is, that bodily exercise constitutes so considerable and necessary an element in all human training, that physical training is entitled to be recognized and provided for as an integral and indispensable factor in the education of all children and youth." (Physical Training Conference, '89. Page 5.)

"Viewed thus, muscular exercises are at once a means and an end of mental, and moral, as well as of physical training; since without bodily actions, we have no means of giving expression to mental power, artistic feeling, or spiritual insight. Without muscular tissue we cannot live or move.

"One may attain to the stature and semblance of manhood and yet, by reason of the arrested development of certain of his motor centers, be nothing better than an infant, or a mere animal, as regards his powers of action; while epilepsy, paralysis, and atrophy may reduce a man, stage by stage, to the condition of an untrained child, or of a helpless idiot, or even to that of a living corpse.

"The functional improvement of the nervous mechanism which represents any movement, whether it be simple or complicated, reflex, automatic, or voluntary, is the most important effect of muscular exercise; or, in other words, muscular training which fails to develop brain power, falls short of its aim.

"Now the centers of motor ideation require to be exercised in order that they may be properly developed, and may contribute usefully to mental processes; and hence muscular training is likely to assume a more important and precise place in our educational systems of the future than it has done hitherto. The defective exercise of any group of muscles during the growth period of its own particular center will result not only in the dwarfing of that center but a corresponding hiatus, or a general weakness must exist in the whole mental fabric. (Page 15.)

"From this we might deduce that swaddling bands so applied at birth as to restrain all muscular movements, and kept on during infancy and childhood, would result in idiocy—a speculation to which the wretched muscular development of most idiots and imbeciles, and the fact that their mental training is most successfully begun and carried on through muscular lessons, gives some countenance." (Page 16.)

Before turning to a discussion of procedure, shall we not get the problem definitely before our minds. Just what are we required to do? We are to work upon growing children in such a manner as to help them to become men and women with larger, stronger bodies, under better control of the will than would otherwise be the case. We must see that the growing mind shall receive all the help that the body can give it in its development; also we are as far as possible to neutralize the effect of confinement upon our charges.

The subject naturally divides itself into three divisions, viz., hygienic, educational and recreative. These over-lap each other very much but will aid us greatly in our treatment.

The first care of the Physical Director should be to see that the surroundings are right; that the school-room is well ventilated that each child's seat allows the feet to rest comfortably on the floor; that the seat is not too wide for the length of the thigh; that the leaf of the desk is neither too high nor too low, nor too far away from the seated child.

We have seen that the organs of digestion, respiration, and circulation have learned to carry on their processes under conditions

of constant activity. Our first care then should be to ward off the ill effects of the sedentary nature of school life. The muscles most effective for this purpose, both because of their size and function, are the muscles of the trunk, therefore exercises including bending, stooping, twisting, etc., should form part of the work through all the grades. A second tendency we have to overcome is the malformation of the growing body. Few who have not had the opportunity of examining numbers of school children stripped realize the frequency of scoliosis, while hollow chests, projecting scapulae, and protruding chins are the rule rather than the exception.

This indicates another class of exercises that should be given all grades, termed corrective exercises.

Exercises bringing in the muscles of the back especially those along the sides of the spine, and the muscles between, and those lifting the ribs should be aimed at. Exercises in deep breathing, especially abdominal, are being more and more utilized for their effect on the organs of both respiration and digestion.

The attempt to achieve educational ends by means of physical training should be governed from beginning to end by the best information we can get of nature's laws of growth. The child does not grow in a haphazard manner, nor is his growth a gradual unfolding of all parts and powers simultaneously. As has already been hinted in one of the quotations, each nerve center has its growth period, called its nascent period, it is now the center of speech, now the fingers, now the feet that are clamoring for attention. The general order followed by the nascent periods seems to be the fundamental or more central before the accessory. The centers for respiration are well organized at birth, while the use of the fingers for instance, comes much later. As an illustration of the order of development, who has not noticed that the infant can extend its arm and bring its hand to an object with certainty considerably before it can intelligently oppose its fingers and thumb for an effective grasp.

Of the importance of observing this order, Mr. Hartwell, in the course of the paper already quoted from, has the following to say: "We should also have to infer, that in order to hold a sound and vigorous brain, we must insure free exercise to the different groups of muscles in the order of the development of their centers and must in no degree interfere with the natural sequence of their evolution; that being so, we must necessarily ascertain what that natural sequence is which is so important a guide to education; got in our

present ignorance of it, we may unwittingly be doing some mischief.

"Suppose that we are encroaching on the time at which hand centers ought to receive their most valuable education—their nascent period—and are devoting that time to the cultivation of the tongue and lip centers, then we should be impairing the full development of the brain, for the hand-controlling center, if not fully exercised at its nascent period can never afterwards attain to the highest cunning. But it seems that not only tongue, but hand and foot and eye and arm and every muscle of the body must be trained in due season if education is to do what we expect of it, and result, not in headaches, and in imbecilities, and nervousness, and insanity but in well-balanced growth of body and mind." (Hartwell, Physical Training Conference, '89. Page 16.)

"The law of the evolution of the nervous system seems to me to furnish a sufficient criterion by which to estimate the worth or success of any scheme or system of physical training. Any system that does not provide first of all and continuously for the training and exercise of these central or fundamental groups of muscles, will fail utterly in securing either the hygienic or the educational end of exercise; and any system which substitutes training of the accessory centers, is bound to contribute more towards the promotion of brain forcing than towards its prevention.

"The most fundamental mechanisms of the trunk are those which are concerned in the movements of respiration and circulation. They are quite fully organized at birth; but the need for their exercise ceases only with the life of the organism. The centers which represent the muscles by means of which the trunk is kept erect and balanced upon the pelvis are accessory, if compared with those mentioned above, but are fundamental as compared with those which represent the muscles of locomotion. The muscles of the trunk are called into fuller and more frequent play as soon as the child ceases to go on all-fours, and it must then learn, after a fashion, which may exigently demand correction or further training later on, to co-ordinate the movements of its limbs with those of the trunk. The child learns to flex its thigh upon the body, the leg upon the thigh, and to elevate the heel from the ground considerably earlier than it can raise its toes, so that the foot shall swing clear of the ground and it be enabled to begin another step. What folly it would be to try to teach a toddling infant to run, or jump, or dance.

"Similarly the training of the hand and fingers should not only be preceded, but accompanied by the exercise of the muscles of the forearm, arm, shoulder and trunk. You shall not gather ripe manual cunning from a limb whose trunk attachments are undersized, untrained or deformed. This fact points to the danger of exacting genuine manual training from young pupils, especially if it be divorced from its proper adjuvant and corrective, general gymnastics. It is simply impossible to make any technical drill, such as wood-turning, penmanship, singing, piano exercises, or even the manual of arms, meet the proper ends of bodily education, either for children, adolescents, or adults. Technical training, appealing as it does to the most accessory mechanisms, should be grounded on general hygienic and educational training; should not be pushed at too early a stage; and should be left, where it belongs, in the hands of special trainers." (Page 19.)

Thus far we have been considering educational physical work from the point of view of the Swedish definition which says: "The object of educational gymnastics is to train the pupil to make his body subservient to his own will." (Physical Training Conference, '89. Page 38.)

Concerning its value as strictly mental training, I cannot do better than to quote from an article on the motor elements in education by Mr. D. F. Lincoln, of Boston. (Published in the Physical Education Review, Vol. 2, No. 2.):

"Our motor experiences serve two entirely different educational ends, since they may either form a basis or a re-inforcement of ideas.

"First as a basis; the mass of perceptions, recollections, comparisons, which compose the contents of our minds is very largely made up of movement ideas, in origin either external and objective or volitional. Few thoughts can be entertained without recalling some associations of movement, seen or felt. Beginning in earliest infancy, there is a very large volume of mental experiences founded upon the movements of our bodies; they are associated inextricably with the sensations of movement, and often are directly acquired by the aid of these movements. We will consider some of these."

Mr. Lincoln goes on to claim perceptions of physical properties, as weight, tension, velocity, momentum, inertia, perceptions of number, perception of geometric form, perception of position, motion, distance, direction, as being of motor origin.

All forms of exercise have special value as mental training while

they are new to the pupil. When they become automatic they lose their educational value. The more complicated the exercise—requiring more strict attention—the greater its educational value. Indian club exercises may be named as of special value in this connection.

Exercises involving accessory groups of muscles are better for mental training than those using fundamental groups. The use of the fingers is for educational ends one of the best forms of exercise. This gives manual training its special point.

The recreative branch of our subject besides its own field of recreation combines hygienic and educational properties. Moreover it introduces moral training in a very special sense.

Play is as universal among the young of animals, man included, as eating and sleeping, and almost as necessary to their healthful development.

Play derives its hygienic value from its active nature. The activity being so in harmony with the will does not exhaust as work does. It is a matter of common remark that if children were obliged to put forth in work the amount of exertion they do in their play, it would kill them. The pleasure and stimulation of play are large factors in its hygienic value.

Play derives its educational value from the large number of movements it rehearses, and from the mental activity involved in its competition. Young animals in play rehearse those actions upon which their adult life will depend. Children in their play acquire the power to do many of the things that will later be their work.

The moral training of play comes by virtue of its freedom of choice. In work one does what he must. Except as one chooses to do work conscientiously or otherwise, it has little moral value. On the contrary, play is free. One can play fair because it is right and he chooses to do so, or he can cheat. The player is a free moral agent. Co-operation with one's fellows is an element which enters into play especially in team games.

Play is nature's own system of physical training and is far too important to be slighted by those who have the best interests of children at heart.

The form which the physical work in our schools it to take should be carefully considered. Shall it be one of the so-called systems, Swedish or German? Shall it be military or shall it be selective? My objection to the systems is that there is danger

of narrowness. The calisthenic exercises of either the Swedish or German system if intelligently used are very suitable; but I fear that one educated to either system is rather inclined to be limited by its bounds.

Concerning the military plan I will quote from a letter by H. J. Koehler, Master of the Sword and Physical Instructor at the U. S. Military Academy, 1896, to a committee of the Boston Physical Education Society. (Physical Education Review, Vol. 1, No. 1, page 76.)

"In consequence of this you find to-day that almost every post in the army has an officer detached whose duty it is to give the men as much gymnastic and athletic training as time and facilities will permit. With these facts before us the most natural question that confronts us is, if in the experience of those in charge of the army, it has been proved beyond a doubt that the training of soldiers by the old methods was sadly inadequate; that in many respects it proved injurious; that since better and quicker results are obtainable by other methods—why should we who have the training of children, a nation's most holy and sacred charge, intrusted to us, why should we hesitate to profit by this experience."

Personally I am far from criticizing the military drill. I believe that it is of great value as an element in physical training. As carried out in the schools of our own city it is a long step in the right direction, and our drill instructor, Major Billman, is to be congratulated on the excellent work he has accomplished. At certain ages, especially with boys, no better work could be undertaken. It induces erect bearing and graceful carriage. The setting-up exercises if intelligently used are fine calisthenics as far as they go. Especially does the drill teach submission to discipline and quiet gentlemanly demeanor.

What then are we to conclude is on the whole the best plan to follow. Could we not make a combination that would be more effective than any one line. Give to each grade the work most appropriate to its stage of development, beginning with the simplest form of calisthenics, later dumb bell, Indian club, and wand drills, manual training, military drill and gymnasium work. At all stages organized play; games and athletics organized, encouraged and tactfully controlled by those whom the children respect—the teachers. By entering the realm of play in this manner the teachers would treble their influence.

Whatever plan is followed, the stimulation of the interest of

the pupil is of first importance. If interest is lacking, little will be accomplished.

Given a well considered plan of physical training, the question arises: how is it to be carried out? Plainly it should be organized and supervised by a competent person. But it is manifestly impossible for a single person even in a small city to put into execution a work that would be at all adequate. Therefore until those in authority can see their way clear to provide an extensive staff of special instructors, the work must be done, if it is to be done at all, by the regular teachers. Nor is it a work that can be done off-hand. Comparatively little will be accomplished unless the procedure is intelligent.

Thus we see that training in this branch of education is very essential to the preparation of every public school teacher for the best work. This training should include the study of physiology, hygiene and the effects of exercise. The proper conduction of the various forms of exercise available for school purposes should be familiarized. The rules and mode of playing the various school-yard games should be learned and the future teacher should be able to referee or umpire for them. This training will not only make better teachers but better men and women. The supervisor of physical training who has the help of teachers thus prepared will have many thorns removed from his path.

To my knowledge the Winnipeg Normal School is giving a good deal of attention to this subject, and I hope and trust the others throughout the Dominion are as well.

Regarding the present status of physical training in the schools of the Dominion, I find that most of the Provinces have the subject included in the course of instruction.

Nova Scotia has a clause as follows:—

"Physical Exercises and Military Drill.—Physical exercise should be given for a few minutes in the middle of every session over one hour in length. At such times it is beneficial even to pupils who have walked a long distance to school and who are accustomed to active work at home. The younger the pupil the more often such exercise should be given, in order to maintain physical restfulness and mental activity during the time for study. These exercises should always be made the occasion of training the pupils to maintain the most healthful and graceful position of the body in sitting, standing and moving. This training is as much the duty of the teacher as the other work of the school.

"Military drill is the latest result of the experience of generations of practical men in devising the most effective manner of training numbers of men to move in the most convenient order and under the fullest control. It is therefore particularly adapted to the movement of pupils in all schools for girls, as well as boys. Apart from other considerations, the fact that the children from various schools are often likely to be massed together, makes it desirable that the same system should be followed everywhere. The best system, and that which is most likely to be useful in the widest extent, is the standard modern military drill. All teachers are required to make as practical an acquaintance as possible with the system of military drill at least as far as 'squad drill,' and to have their pupils drilled to stand and move smartly. Inspectors are directed to mark no school work under this head, no matter how good, higher than 'fair,' unless he has had an opportunity of observing the military drill."

New Brunswick under the heading "Physical Exercises."—"Physical exercises shall be given at least once during each session. Where it may be found practicable, a more extended course of calisthenics and military drill may be organized. Correct position, etc., in sitting, walking and standing should be insisted on."

Under "Hygiene and Temperance."—"Under each of the standards 1 to 4, familiar lessons based on the prescribed texts, and adapted to each grade, shall be given orally on Temperance and the general conditions of health, including the necessity of pure air, sunlight, pure water, wholesome food, cleanliness, regular habits, exercise, avoidance of what is hurtful in food, clothing or conduct, the effect of narcotics, intoxicants, etc."

For British Columbia, I find appended to the course of study, a clause which reads: "In addition to the above subjects the following may be taught, Agriculture, Geometry, Temperance, Music, Needle Work and Calisthenics."

These may be taken as typical of the authorization of the subject. To recount the specific work that is done in the various cities would extend this paper too far even if I were able to do so.

In closing I wish to say that I believe that this subject is of tremendous importance; that educators have been far too indifferent concerning its claim on their attention; that a policy that neglects it because of expense is exceedingly short-sighted.

I plead for the broadest, wisest plan of physical education that can be devised, to be executed in the most thorough manner possible for the sake of our young Canada.

ART IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS—WHAT IT IS AND WHAT IT MIGHT BE.

MISS E. E. RANKIN, NORMAL SCHOOL,

Regina, N.W.T.

THE "What it is" will consist of a brief outline of what is now being done in each Canadian Province, both in the Public School for the advancement of the pupil, and in the Normal School for the preparation of the teacher. The "What it might be" will be discussed under Aims, Spirit and Method.

The chief Aims of art education in the Public School we would state to be, first, to cause æsthetic quickening and growth; second, to implant a desire to apply these artistic and æsthetic principles in life; third, to give training of mind and hand. Spirit, though probably the most important of our topics, will only be touched upon, since it is of an elusive nature, beyond the reach of words. In speaking of Method, we will take the aims, as stated above, and tell how we would endeavour to accomplish each.

"WHAT IT MIGHT BE."

A. Aims: (1) Aesthetic quickening and growth.

Our first and chief aim is to lead to an appreciation of beauty, for, in observing order and harmony in the material world, the child begins to acquire these mentally, and they reappear in act. The æsthetic training thus gained is valuable in the industrial world, while to the social world it adds culture and refinement. The individual is given pleasure and enjoyment by a greater sensitiveness to beauty. The artist is heir to riches which we may not share. He has a satisfaction from his surroundings which takes him out of himself and enables him to rise above the smaller worries and troubles of the day. From nature and art he receives new inspiration and fresh ideals for the building up of life courses. He has a deeper reverence for the God of nature. Does the average individual not

also need this strength in his life? Should we not aim to give some poetry and music as well as the common prose? The poorer the occupation, the harder the toil, the more need to open this gate to the City of Refuge. Life means a physical and a spiritual struggle, and our art training helps to prepare the child for this struggle. While the mind is thus occupied with beauty, there is little room for evil thought. Vice becomes more and more repellant because of its ugliness. "In true art," says Ruskin, "the hand, the head and the heart of man go together." Our aim is to give the preparation for a broader, fuller life; to have the child see more, know more, feel more.

Aims: (2) Desire to apply the artistic and æsthetic principles to life.

To open the child's eyes to the perception of beauty is, however, not enough. We want actors and doers as well as dreamers and thinkers. We wish our training to be a direct force in the world. We wish to influence the individuals' personal tastes and habits, and through the growth of the individual to benefit the life of the home and of the community. An educated buyer would demand more artistic goods, a more intelligent craftsman would contribute his share to meet this demand. In this way our dwellings would improve, there would be more expression of individuality in the furnishing, and more attention paid to the surroundings. By creating a desire for beauty we would have better streets and public buildings, more parks and gardens. But this is not all; in the stimulus to activity and the desire to do the best, the moral tone is elevated both in the individual and the community.

Aims: (3) Training of mind and hand.

In the third place our aim is to give training—training of mind, training of hand or manual skill. The mind furnishes the motive or impulse, the hand gains sufficient control to obey. The mind acquires clear, definite, mental images, the hand strives to portray these images. If we train the mind to analyze and criticize we must give some ability in representation. In giving power to put thought into action, art furnishes conditions parallel to those found in life. Hope is awakened, we are led to aspire, and in achieving our ideals become nobler. The ideals are ever above the realization, and though we have no complete satisfaction in either art or life, yet the endeavour is elevating. The child is being taught to see clearly, and in being made to represent his observations accurately has his love

of truth strengthened. Our course then, should aim to lead to the discovery of truth and give practice in the representation of truth.

In training the powers of mind we try to present our lessons to cultivate the imagination, to train the memory or to strengthen the judgment. The kind of work will be determined by the stage of the child's mental development. In drawing, the perceptive faculties are trained to a greater extent than in any other school exercise. Following the inspection of an object, we require a mental reproduction of it; memory and imagination are thus trained as well as perception. The child has been given a stimulus to closer study and attention, and through the act of reproducing the thought is crystallized and becomes a part of his knowledge.

Again, in this work, we are giving an added mode of self-expression. We are introducing the child to a new language—a language universally understood. We teach him "to talk" and "to read" in this language. In constructing lines to make a picture he at first makes the same crude attempt as in choosing words to state a thought. But with practice comes skill, and with skill in expression comes skill in interpretation. Pictures mean more to him. As in the mastery of a verbal language he studies literature to acquaint himself with good thought and to acquire skill in turn of phrase, or elegance and beauty of diction, so, in the study of form language he receives from great pictures the messages of the masters, and finds by a more detailed study, how these ideas have been fittingly and beautifully expressed. The artist, like the author, is the conservator and teacher of his language. It is our privilege to give familiarity in the use of this language, and to lead the pupil to appreciate the highest forms of art expression.

To the teacher this form language is valuable, because in the child's every attempt we may obtain an insight into the character, and study the individuality. In most lessons the child is continually acquiring information, but we have only limited means for testing and examining the ideas thus formed. Drawing is as suitable a means of expression as is speaking, reading or singing. It is natural to the child. Almost from the time he begins to talk, he selects a pencil to illustrate his ideas. At first he uses his memory and imagination, recalling his previous sense perceptions. Very few lines will suffice: a circle and two vertical lines tell us the story "man"—an ellipse and four lines a dog, cow or horse as his fancy pleases. He seizes only the essentials of life and action. We cannot afford to des-

pise these crude beginnings. They indicate the progress made, but we must learn to judge by the child's standard, not by our own, and we should not expect finished results from untrained hands and eyes.

Then, as a means of thought communication from teacher to pupil, drawing is valuable and should occupy a more prominent part in the presentation of lessons: When we have exhausted our vocabulary in some explanation a few simple lines would often make a real, living fact of an otherwise mere abstraction. As teachers we hesitate, but the child's imagination would aid in an understanding of our crude attempts. The magazine of to-day recognizes the value of suitable illustration, and the tendency of the age is to prefer instruction through the picture, the diagram, the explanatory chart.

Lastly, but not least, the training of the creative powers forms a most important aim in our art education. This is the "self" in art—the expression of the individual. The pupil has a thought and makes something to embody his idea. The creation of an artistic piece of work is not gained by the application of force, nor is it the result of imitation. The child should be deeply interested, and free to work, unhampered by rules. The imagination is called into play. Just as the engineer or the architect, in any great attempt uses the imagination to picture ideal conditions and then tries to realize these, so the child in his creative work sees in imagination the finished product, and is spurred to attempt the beginning. In training the creative powers and in giving executive ability art is thus a most valuable aid.

B Spirit:

When we have decided what aims we would keep in view in the teaching of any branch, the question of spirit and method becomes comparatively a simple one.

A few words will sum up the spirit of our course. Shall we keep these—interest, sympathy, freedom, discipline? Since so much more can be accomplished when a child is interested we aim to supply suitable material and to adapt the method to the needs. A child must have a thought to express, and he must have a sympathetic listener ready to receive that thought, for these are two indispensable conditions for good expression. To preserve the individuality of the child we want freedom and enjoyment as well as independent effort. But there is also the question of discipline. The drawing period is not a play period—no harm done if one can make it appear

that—it is a period of work and best effort. Lessons of life must be learned there. Definite progressive teaching must be given, and definite results expected.

We may approach the art instinct only through the affections and the tastes. The child is impervious to knowledge which we thrust upon him. We prefer to make the work attractive, and to have things attract the attention by virtue of their power to impress and interest. We may attend to the environment of the child, but only ideas to which his nature responds are absorbed. All children, then, cannot pursue the same course of study. Nor can we expect them all to see in the same way or to have the same skill. We must not deaden the art instinct by driving. Beauty is gradual in growth, and slow of cultivation, depending upon growth of soul. The teacher's part is to make the work pleasurable, to present the subject in such a way that the pupil will seek help, and to aim to gain sufficient enthusiasm to carry the pupil through the technical study which may be required as he advances.

C (1) Method—A Means to an End.

The end is to secure æsthetic growth through means of school rooms, school exercises, nature, art, pictures and illustrations.

The indirect influences of environment are perhaps as powerful as any direct training. What are we doing with our class rooms to develop the æsthetic nature? We may reply that we have nothing in our schools that is beautiful. But it is even so in many of the homes, and if we are to fit the child for life our aim is not so much to stir a desire for the unattainable, as to teach the very best use of what is already at hand. All may learn, as the first lesson, that perfect cleanliness, order, and good taste may be found even where we have the rudest appointments. What more practical than to teach the artistic way of doing simple things—the neat arrangement of an exercise on the blackboard, what colours will harmonize in the map being completed for class use, where to hang a picture, or how to select and arrange the common flowers for the daily bouquet. In such work we would call upon the class for their ideas, and seek to lead them to know what is tasteful. We could give explicit directions, or perhaps do the work ourselves, but where would come the training for independent action. Our aim in the earlier stages is to lead the child to instinctively recognize the beautiful, and later to teach him to understand the underlying principles.

When we have made the best use of what we have the gods will

probably send us more, but if not we would make the effort to obtain it. Good pictures, casts, and pieces of statuary are recognized as necessities in our modern education, and though the present trustee may not oblige us by procuring these, yet we are educating the future trustee to better things—even to appreciate the so-called "frills of education"—art and music.

Nature, too, furnishes us with examples of beauty with which to enrich the child life. We can lead the child to observe colour as found in flowers, fruits and insects, or to study sky, trees and landscape. Nature study in itself strengthens the love of the beautiful, and, when combined with our art training, there comes a stronger appreciation for even the commonest things. In the selection of material for our lessons we are careful to combine good form and colour. Pupils are required to take an active part in the choice and arrangement of their studies or groups.

The cultural side of our work is also aided by picture study. The pictures chosen are within the range of the understanding and of the experience, so that we may have true appreciation. We do not want the admiration to be that which the teacher gained through the study of a text. How like the study of Rocky Mountain scenery by means of the railway guide instead of the reality! We may make picture study genuine and of value, or we may develop fluent expression without feeling. In the primary classes we might aim for correct interpretation of the picture, while the art and composition would be left for a more advanced grade. True, some pictures, like some literary selections, are suitable for all grades, but the amount which we expect the child to take away, depends, does it not, on what the child brings to them? *He* is the interpreter, *we* only guide the study. Some one says: "A good picture is a judge of us, not we of it."

A greater value might also be derived from the use of good illustrations. Suppose that we have developed a topic carefully but the results are not satisfactory. Is this not the place for example? We may show the class just how to work—intelligent leadership will inspire. We may exhibit the best results of class work, and all compare and discuss the good points, thus deriving benefit. We may furnish good examples of pictorial rendering for better technique, or study historic ornament to teach grace of outline. Thus power is gained. The pupil is now ready to make another effort and one which generally shows decided improvement. Copies even may be useful, but are not final. They are a means to an end—the end,

better self-expression. If properly used they stimulate thought, develop observation, and lead to better results. Our ideas of what is correct are limited by what we have seen, and on this account the pupils improve by continually seeing the best.

(2) Method—Training.

In training, our method will depend upon the age of the child. The younger child of from five to ten years is willing to attempt the drawing of anything, and the result gives him eminent satisfaction. This age has been called the age of "artistic illusion." The older pupil will not work as freely, because he is critical of his effort, but he has more appreciation of beauty of form. In any stage we must avoid discouragement by not giving work which is beyond the pupil's ability to accomplish. The younger child calls upon his memory and imagination to illustrate stories, games and plays. With much freedom of movement he delineates character and motion. His animals and figures are never from the pose; at first he does not observe while he is drawing. In the earliest work we would require the expression of story and action, and a little later to observe and draw directly from the object. To train the observation he is directed to the study of objects and he tests his results by comparison. At first we would require the main characteristics, giving a study of good outline or of mass. Details are postponed. As in language there are two stages—first, practice in expression, second, practice plus the grammar; in art we have two stages—knowledge, and critical knowledge. The senior pupil will be expected to give careful estimates of proportion, to do necessary reasoning, and to show accuracy. He should acquire a fair method of working and a fair degree of skill and representation.

In dealing with our classes we require definite, progressive, thorough teaching,—not one thing to-day, another to-morrow, and nothing done really well. In arithmetic we need illustration, repetition, drill. Do we not in drawing? Can we gain success without systematic effort? If we are teaching a special topic, say the foreshortening of a circle, let us study it as seen in the hemisphere, circular tablet, half-apple, bowls, leaves, or any form that illustrates our principles. But let us prolong the study till the pupil can with facility and correctness represent any object requiring the use of that principle. During such teaching we would prefer many sketches and few finished drawings, for we are putting the stress on observation and the discovery of essentials. If ellipses were not perfect we would not care, for this is now a secondary aim. Should we not reasonably

expect, too, that a good method would give power to work out new and untaught problems?

In the criticism of a pupil's work we desire to discover the child's ideas, We do not say, "This is too long" or "This is too short," but lead him to discover his own errors. We aim to train the eye to be the instrument of precision. Again, a child does not learn to draw by drawing; the genius may but we have few of these. Just how *much* direction is not as much the question as *how* and *when* this direction is given. In any grade telling is not finding. If we can lead the children to seek aid, then the teacher's part is surely quite clear. Are our failures attributable to *over* direction or to the fashion of giving the object and saying "Draw." Are there not times when we might proceed in either way? Then we need mechanical skill. As a rule if the child is deeply interested, he will represent by his best curved or straight line, because he is trying to illustrate something near to his life. But is this sufficient practice? Are there not times to give drill as mechanical work? Are there not times when work must be work?

(3) Method: Teaching application of æsthetic principles to life.

Some direct influence from our artistic training should be seen both in the school-room and in that school for which the child is preparing—life. The opportunities for application are only more limited in the one than in the other.

The child may apply his ideas in the construction of objects needed in his own work or in the making of gifts. All become interested in devising a method of keeping class exercises. Who will bring the most useful design for the construction? How will it be lettered or ornamented? Then again the child learns that art extends to his other subjects. In his daily arithmetic exercises, in his language papers, he applies his knowledge and gives good spacing and arrangement. Thus drawing is not an isolated subject but is necessary as an aid to good work in all other subjects.

The man will have opportunities to apply the power he has gained by attention to personal matters, by application in his home life and in his life as a citizen. The school endeavours to direct the child along the path of discovery; life gives opportunity for the realization. of ideals. To lead the soul to build "more stately mansions" is the object of our art training.

An examination of the courses of study in the different Canadian provinces shows that in most, Art in the schools is in its infancy.

In British Columbia it has but little place in the school curriculum. In the North-West Territories definite instruction is given according to a practical but somewhat limited course. In Manitoba there is a very practical course in pictorial, constructive and decorative drawing fully outlined. In Ontario, Art receives considerable attention in the new programme of studies. The course has been planned on broad lines, and evidently by persons who realize of how much service Art may be in education. In Quebec, outside of Montreal, Westmount, and some of the larger towns, little has been accomplished. In Nova Scotia a simple course in drawing is prescribed; it is to be used as an aid to language, nature lessons, and manual training. In the senior classes formal drawing receives considerable attention. In Prince Edward Island, outside of Charlottetown little has been accomplished. In New Brunswick Art teaching in the Public Schools is confined to elementary drawing.

The training of teachers of Art in Canada leaves much to be desired. In most of the Normal Schools, courses are prescribed, and some attention is given to preparing all teachers to do elementary work in public schools. The length of the training term is too short, however, to allow teachers in training to acquire sufficient skill to enable them to do Art work effectively.

Notwithstanding the difficulties with which teachers of Art in our schools have to contend, there is steady though slow progress In the rural schools a beginning has been made; in many of the towns special teachers are engaged; in the larger cities where supervisors of Art instruction are employed, there is much good work accomplished. The influence of these teachers and supervisors is spreading. Such an exhibit of school-Art as is now to be seen in the Somerset Building, reveals how excellent is the work done in many of our schools. Upon all of us it cannot fail to have an educating, stimulating and encouraging effect.

F. H. SCHOFIELD, B.A.

KINDERGARTEN

Minutes of the Kindergarten Section.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 27TH, 1904.

THE Kindergarten Section of the Educational Association of 1904 was held in Winnipeg, July 27th. The first meeting took place in the Free Kindergarten Building on Ellen Street at 3 o'clock. Mrs. Lothrop, the vice-president, took the chair, Miss Macintyre being unable to be present.

The address of welcome in behalf of the Association of the Free Kindergarten was given by Mrs. Bryce in the absence of their president, Mrs. Mackay.

After explaining the absence of Miss Copus and Mrs. Mackay, Mrs. Bryce gave an outline of the causes leading to the formation of the Free Kindergarten Association, after which a hearty welcome was extended to all the delegates and friends meeting that day in their building.

Miss Aylesworth, in reply, thanked the Association for their very friendly welcome.

This was followed by a very interesting paper given by Mrs. Lothrop on Kindergarten work in the poorer parts of the city, in which is set forth in a very convincing manner why the work in those parts is even more necessary than in any other. A short account was given also of the growth of the work in Winnipeg, which said:—"The Free Kindergarten was established in 1892. Since then there has been steady increase in the attendance at the sewing classes, and meetings for boys that are held in the building, as well as the kindergarten and kitchen garden.

"The Maple Street Kindergarten, started by the members of 'All People's Mission,' takes in children from homes of all nationalities. There have been many encouraging signs of improvement in this branch of the work also."

After Mrs. Lothrop, Mrs. Parker said a few words to show what a great work the Association was doing in the city.

THURSDAY, JULY 28TH, 1904.

On Thursday, July 28th the meeting was held at Somerset School, at 2 o'clock. After the minutes of the last meeting were read and adopted, Miss Aylesworth moved "that Miss Macintyre be re-elected as president of the Association. The motion was seconded by Miss Cornell and unanimously carried.

Mr. W. A. McIntyre then moved that Miss Aylesworth be made secretary which was seconded by Miss Colter and carried.

Miss Aylesworth moved that Mrs. Patterson be re-elected vice-president, which Miss Colter seconded. Miss Colter moved that Mrs. Lothrop and Miss Cody be made vice-presidents also. This was seconded by Miss Cornell and carried.

The first paper was written by Miss Macintyre on "The practical influences of the Kindergarten," and was read with good effect by Mrs. Lothrop.

This paper set forth very strongly the place and need of the Kindergarten in the education of the child. The latter part gave a strong plea for Kindergarten in connection with public schools in Winnipeg.

A few remarks from Mr. McIntyre followed this address, in which he heartily approved of the Kindergarten and its methods and aids to education.

Miss Colter read Miss Cody's paper on "Nature Study in the Kindergarten."

In this was pointed out the fact that the child was naturally deeply interested in nature since he has not yet separated himself from nature and is a part of it. This interest should be fostered by the teacher so that as the little one grows older he may not lose it. One must be in sympathy with nature to really study and understand it. Froebel responds to all feelings of interest in nature that the child has naturally in his "Mutter und Kase Lieder."

Miss Aylesworth's paper, read by herself was enjoyed by all, as were the others. It dealt with "The Kindergarten—it's place in a Child's Education." In this address was proved in a clear, terse manner how each branch of the work has a very important place in the child's education.

THE PRACTICAL INFLUENCE OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

MISS M. MACINTYRE, TORONTO, ONT.

(Principal of Kindergarten Department, Normal School.)

I WISH to speak first of the *value of kindergarten training for the development of character.* We all recognize that education, in its first and final analysis, means the training of children to be strong men and women, with a recognition of what is right and a determined will to carry out this ideal. That is, that self-control, a clear discrimination between right and wrong, a loving heart, and a sense of our responsibility in our relations with other people, are the best foundation for the welfare of the individual and the nation.

We are all familiar with the statistics which have proved the economical value of Public Schools.

When Germany was at the lowest ebb of her national life, when thousands of her soldiers deserted for a foreign service and her rulers were in despair, Fichte, the philosopher, advised her statesmen to found a national system of education, declaring that education would bind the people into a national whole and make them strong to conquer. The result justified him. Germany is not only one of the foremost nations of the world but has stood supreme among European countries in all educational theory and practice.

You know that it is cheaper in dollars and cents to educate the children than to maintain prisons; and cold hard statistics prove that the establishment of good public schools means an enormous decrease in crime. The school educates the child for good citizenship.

Now I want to prove to you that the kindergarten lays the best possible foundation for *this kind of education;* that it takes the child in hand at the most formative period of his life, when he is most easily influenced through his emotions, and implants in his heart ideals of what is true, good, and beautiful; that by filling his mind with healthy and helpful ideas it prevents idle, harmful thoughts from finding a lodging in his mind, or if they do find entrance, they are recognized as wrong, as something to be ashamed of.

The songs, games and stories of the kindergarten, which are so frequently misunderstood, are not mere nursery rhymes nor amusements, but are a carefully selected collection of songs and plays, each embodying some ideal of life in childish form. Every duty, every relationship in life is brought before the child in story, song, and game, yet not as dogmatic teaching, nor in sugar-coated pills of religious instruction, but in such alluring form that the child's desire is aroused to reach up to that ideal which song and story reveal to him, and which he lives out through the dramatic expression of his play.

Let me explain to you some of the thoughts which influence the child through the kindergarten.

When the baby enters this life, he is surrounded by several moulding influences, which will determine his view of the world and govern his actions. Of these, *example* is the most potent, and the unconscious, silent influence of his family and their social circle will make an immense impression on his sensitive nature and feelings. Thoughts and habits grow into the fibre of his life that tend to produce either an honorable or a dishonorable nature.

If the family ideals are unselfish and lofty, he will absorb them unconsciously, but if his surroundings are low, base and sordid, alas for the frailty of our nature, he is almost certain to be like them. The children imitate everything they see about them, the wee girl tries to pick up her dress, and minces across the street, with an exact imitation of her mother's airs, the boy imitates his father, his teacher, every one with whom he comes in contact. A little baby girl had never seen a kitten lap milk from a saucer. She watched with great interest until the kitten, satisfied, had trotted away, then down she got on all fours, and sticking her little tongue into the saucer tried the experiment for herself. Children relive all their experiences in play; the boy is a soldier, doctor, motorman, shop-keeper, minister, or Indian chief, according to his fancy and his experiences. He is a born actor and fills

> "From time to time his humorous stage
> With all the persons down to palsied age,
> That life brings with her in her equipage,
> As if his whole vocation
> Were endless imitation."

But this constant imitation means the deepening of these im-

pressions. If the favourite play of a child is arresting a drunken man, while the drunkard kicks and swears, or the hanging of a murderer, as I have known to be reproduced by children in the crowded parts of our cities, the influence of such play is debasing.

Or take the more harmless game that we have all played as children,

> "Little Sally Waters sitting in the sun
> Crying and weeping for a young man"

or King William in which the boy must

> "Turn to the East and turn to the West
> And choose the very one that you love best,
> Salute your bride and kiss her sweet,
> Then quickly rise upon your feet."

These games, with numberless others that you will readily remember, make children self-conscious and bring premature ideas into their minds; and yet I hear people wonder why children so soon become vain and self-conscious and in little girls' minds "boy" becomes a synonym for "beau" instead of playmate.

Froebel substitutes for these, numbers of games that satisfy the child's desire for activity, that enable him to exert his power and define his skill, always in connection with *healthy thoughts*. He also substitutes *family plays*, in which the ideal family is pictured—not the scolding mother and disobedient children that we have seen played so often, but the loving mother, the family in which each member has his work, and his responsibility to contribute to the happiness of the home.

Again the children learn through certain songs and games that *love means service*, so when we invite mother and father to our Christmas tree, there are no presents on it for the children, but it is laden with the pretty gifts that the children have spent many happy hours in making for the parents. Or we go to the woods in spring and gather the flowers in a basket we have already woven, and carry them happily home to mother, singing Froebel's little song:

> "Weave a little basket,
> Fill it up with posies,
> Roses from the garden,
> Blossoms from the wood.
> With our sweetest wishes,

With our songs and kisses,
Take them to our parents
Dear and kind and good."

Then through songs and games, supplemented by stories, Froebel awakens the child to a sympathetic interest in nature. The kindergarten prepares for Nature Study by arousing interest and love for all that is beautiful and wonderful in Nature.

In this work Froebel has been the pioneer in education. He insisted that the child should plant his seeds and watch the miracle of growth, should nurture and protect animal life, should marvel over the wonderful metamorphoses of insect life, and learn his lesson of reverence from star and flower.

Another set of songs brings the life of trade before the little ones, and leads them from the enjoyment of their food and the comfort of warm clothing and shelter to recognize the chain of activities necessary for the production of these common needs of daily life. From the bread, the child is led to think of the baker, the miller, the farmer, and the All-loving Father who sends sunshine, dew and rain for the growth of the harvest.

He plays he is a carpenter, a blacksmith, a miner. He feels the necessity of labour, the interdependence of our life, the shame of idleness. He learns that energy must be united to skill, to produce valuable work. It is a foundation for the recognition of the dignity of all faithful, conscientious labour, whether of head or hands. He knows that honest work should receive just remuneration, and there grows in his heart a feeling of responsibility in regard to the treatment of his fellow beings. If we could thoroughly imbue the children of this generation with these thoughts, the questions of capital and labour would solve themselves in the next generation.

He plays soldier, and among the favourite songs of the little ones are "God save the King," and "The Land of the Maple." We always stand when we sing them, and I have seen little figures draw themselves erect, little faces grow almost stern as their hearts were stirred with that feeling which, developing into true patriotism, becomes one of the most sublime, unselfish attributes.

You will say I am dwelling on the ideal side a long time, but it is practical, working ideals that we need in this world; the ideal is after all the most practical, and in our educational system we can not afford to give anything but the best. Froebel, I think, has been most happy in his choice of those ideals which would prepare the child for good

citizenship, and in putting them in such form that they captivate the imagination and arouse the will. I should like to give you one more illustration before I leave this subject. One of the favourite games of the kindergarten is the game of "The Knights." Knights with their armor, their horses, the danger and romance of their lives are intensely interesting to children. This game presents the knight to the child as an ideal to strive towards, and as a judge of his actions. Brave, strong, truthful, and courteous, the knights love the good child and turn from the naughty one He then must be like the knight. In playing the game, a certain number of children are chosen to be knights for that day, from those who have really striven to be knightly. The child who is selfish or unkind recognizes the justice of the fact that we could not choose him to-day. If he tries harder to control himself another day, the honour may be his. The moral incentive of this game is very great. The little boy must not cry when he falls because knights are brave. A child who was much inclined to be a cry-baby announced delightedly that he could be a knight to-day because yesterday when he cut his finger he did not cry and did not have a rag around it.

One small boy, trying to construct a form using sticks and peas of a poor quality, said: "Well, I don't believe even knights would like to work with these peas." His companion of the next seat said instantly: "I don't believe they would say anything about it," showing that in his heart was growing the idea of the cheerful endurance of small troubles. Another time I discovered a small woolly lamb tucked in the arm of our statue of The Knight. The child who had brought it and placed it there had evidently in her little mind some connection between the ideal knight and the Good Shepherd. I could multiply instances of the influence of these songs, games and stories upon the spiritual growth of children, but I must proceed to show you another side of the kindergarten, namely:

Its Value as a Preparation for School Life.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University says: "It is almost impossible to exaggerate the value of the kindergarten in the Public Schools."

The late Col. Francis W. Parker, of Chicago Institute said: "I have had the opportunity of watching little ones beginning at four years of age in the Kindergarten and going through all the grades of the Primary and Grammar schools, and I can say of a truth, that

it is impossible to overestimate the value of the Kindergarten in the character, growth, and development of children. Without doubt, the ideas of Froebel have done more for education in the United States than *any* and *all* movements."

Mr. C. B. Gilbert, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, New Jersey, says: "I consider the introduction of the Kindergarten into the Public Schools, the greatest step in education that was ever taken in this country, with the possible exception of the establishment of the Normal Schools by Horace Mann."

I quote these statements to you to show that the kindergarten is recognized by clear-headed, practical, unsentimental school inspectors, as a necessity of their school system. They have nothing to gain by an advocacy of the kindergarten. They are working for the highest efficiency in the schools under their charge. If they find that the kindergarten adds to this efficiency they will defend it; if they found that it detracted from it, they would justly set their faces against it. That they have not done so but have given their testimony in its favour, in their reports and in conventions, proves its educational value. Mr. Gilbert, whom I quoted above, says again: "It (the kindergarten) means a greater saving of time in the acquirement of the ordinary common school branches. Supposing you take two children, one enters the kindergarten and the other enters the first grade at the same time. They are average children. The one who enters the kindergarten will be in the High School a year ahead of the other, and often longer. If he is a foreigner, if he is particularly dull so that his faculties are not aroused, he will save two years." This is not by skipping a grade but by broader and stronger work in each succeeding grade."

The experiment was tried in Boston of organizing a few Primary Schools composed wholly of kindergarten children. Mr. E. P. Seaver, Superintendent of Boston Public Schools, says of these: "The result seems to warrant the belief that if all children could be taken through the kindergarten before entering the Primary School, the instruction in the latter would be advanced and enlarged to a degree not now possible."

Now let me take up a few minutes to show you that these men are justified in their statements.

First, the kindergarten is a link between *home* and *school*. It is designed for the period of *childhood* as contrasted with *babyhood*, and *boyhood* and *girlhood*. The kindergarten breaks a path

for the school by accustoming children to be away from home for regular periods every day. At home, the variations of weather, the whims of his self-indulgence, or the desire of the moment control his actions. If he wishes to play with his blocks now, and his rocking horse five minutes later it is perfectly right that he should have that freedom; but the *kindergarten* prepares him for the necessary routine of time tables, the drill of getting ready for class, marching, obeying signals, etc., by habituating him to daily companionship and work with others.

He can not do what he wishes particularly, but must conform to the order of the class, so habits of punctuality, regularity, and order are formed. In the kindergarten all the child's faculties are awakened and trained. His observation is alert, wide-awake, he is interested in everything about him, *not with the interest of nervous excitement but because of awakened sympathy and intelligence.*

The training of the senses through the many little songs and plays arranged for that purpose, the quickened perception, keen hearing, habit of comparison and discrimination, the control of the hands which the child gains through his play with the kindergarten material, mean a *development of power* that is *a great preparation* for school life, it is an excellent equipment.

Manual training begins in the kindergarten, hands grow dexterous, fingers nimble and controlled, the child develops skill and power and, above all, a habit of depending upon himself, welcoming difficulties to be conquered. How often we are called to share in the delight of some little one who joyfully tells us that he did it *all himself.* These, with the habits of attention and control of wandering thoughts, prepare the child to be a ready, active, studious, orderly pupil.

So far I have been speaking of the general advantages; now for the definite benefits.

In the primary room, reading, writing, and number work are taught; you prepare by conversation, lessons, etc., for grammar, geography, and literature. The child who has had kindergarten training is prepared for all of these subjects; his sharp eyes and power of discrimination and comparison, his keen hearing, these qualities help him to recognize and contrast words and to readily interpret them in sound, while his contact with objects, his interest in Nature and in the occupations of men, the habit of tracing processes and seeking relationships are the *best foundation* for an intelligent use

of the simplest reading books. He begins his study of literature through the songs and stories which cultivate taste and imagination.

Writing and drawing I need not dwell upon; the training of hand and eye prepares for these.

Mathematics is prepared for by the training in form and number, in connection with objects. In his play with blocks, tablets, sticks, etc., which have a mathematical basis, he observes numbers, their combination and relation; he counts objects into groups and gets some idea of fractional parts. One little girl discovers that there are nine square inches in a three inch square, by arranging her tablets (dimension one inch square) into a three inch square, and finding that she requires nine to complete the square. She looked at the cane seat of her chair, counted the holes on one side and then on the other. "How many does twelve on one side and twelve on the other side make?" she asked. The kindergartner understanding what she was thinking about, told her. "Then there are 144 holes in my chair." She had discovered the principle of square measure.

Nature Study is begun in the kindergarten, and the first simple lessons in geography can be learned around the sand table.

The gymnastic element gives good physical training.

The tendency of the present time is to put off the period at which children enter school. The overwhelming testimony of medical authority is against sending a child under seven years old to school from 9 a.m. until 3 or 4 p.m., where he must sit at a desk with book and slate. But the kindergarten is not open to these objections. There is only a morning session; the child has the whole afternoon for free play out of doors. There is such variety in the exercises that there is no strain of attention nor fear of fatigue. Songs, exercises with the material, games and stories succeed each other at short, regular periods.

Besides the kindergarten is not work in the ordinary sense, but, because it satisfies the child's activities and gives scope to his power through giving him the most cherished occupations of all childhood, (building blocks, modelling clay, drawing, weaving, sewing,) it really becomes play to him although we recognize it as definite education. It has been objected that the kindergartens make children nervous by forcing their development. One of the best specialists in nervous diseases in the States was asked to visit kindergartens and make an investigation of methods and material, and to state his views.

He unhesitatingly gave his dictum that there was nothing in a

well conducted kindergarten to injure the nervous system of any child. It has been my experience to have had some children who were *abnormally* nervous, placed under my care by a physician. We found that the kindergarten was a very great benefit to them; they gained in self-control; the simple activities and the healthy, natural interests of which the kindergarten provided such a variety, were found to be most helpful. In institutions for the feeble-minded and defective children, kindergartens are found to be a necessity, and all teaching has to be done according to kindergarten methods. A training that is so essential to the weaklings of humanity must also be valuable to the more fortunate children. As Mr. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools for New York City, says: "The kindergarten has long passed the experimental stage. It has demonstrated its usefulness." There is not now any educator of standing in Europe or America, who does not recognize the value of the kindergarten. They have spread over all the world; the British Isles, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Austria, Asia, Australia, South America. In Japan, a report of some years ago states that they have 105 kindergartens under government control, some with native teachers who have been thoroughly trained. In China, India, even in Armenia, kindergartens have been recognized by the missions as invaluable. From the Yukon to the Sandwich Islands, kindergartens have been established either in public or in mission schools.

In the States in 1899, they had 200,000 pupils enrolled in their kindergartens.

The great majority of testimony of the teachers who have taught children from kindergartens, is strongly in favour of the system. In Ontario, London, Stratford, Kingston and Toronto, Primary teachers have all testified for it. In Ontario, we have about 120 public kindergartens.

The question of expense is sometimes raised against the kindergarten. But a good thing is worth its cost, and the expense per pupil in a kindergarten is not one half the average cost of a High School, yet who would dream of doing without a High School on the score of expense.

A new kindergarten can be equipped for $85 or $90, tables, chairs and permanent materials included. The chairs and tables are less expensive than Primary desks. The law requires us to provide school accommodation for the children of five years old. It would not cost any more to provide for kindergarten for children from

five to seven years old, than it does to provide for one overcrowded, or even two ordinary Primary rooms. It is not absolutely necessary to have a piano, although in some places a piano is considered a good investment, and is used by the whole school for marching exercises and for music classes in the afternoon. In Ontario, the government comes to our aid by a grant of 65 cents per pupil, per average attendance, which is very much larger than the public school grant. The current expense for a kindergarten outside the teachers' salary is $50 for a kindergarten of 75 children. That is a very modest sum, but if the children in the town or city are accustomed to buy their own school books, kindergarten supplies can be treated in the same way, and a fee of 10 cents a month charged to cover the outlay. This was done in London, where we have 15 kindergartens; and the sum more than covers the running expenses, leaving the salary of the teacher the only expense to be borne by the taxpayers. I have dwelt on these details because I know that it is this *supposed* expense of the kindergarten that has retarded its development, and I also know that considered from every side, a well-equipped kindergarten will warrant the outlay in any community. Those who have seen a good kindergarten in session need not to be told of the happy, free, joyous spirit that pervades it. Parents will tell you that they can not keep their little ones at home, that even when ill they beg to go, and wish that kindergartens were open on Saturday and Sunday. Is it right to deprive children of such a happy opening to their school life?

In Manitoba you are justly proud of many departments of your school system, let us hope that in the near future you will strengthen its efficiency, and earn the gratitude of thousands of small children, by the establishment of the *Public School Kindergarten.*

NATURE STUDY IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

MISS E. CODY, TORONTO, ONT.

(Normal School.)

"From every point, from every object of Nature, there is a way to God."

With primitive man Nature was felt to be divine; not the hand that made it, but itself to hold that Divine Essence; hence the worship of it, and the development of heathen religions which had their origin in a belief in the divinity of nature.

All around man was nature, great, mighty, beautiful! Was it not all alive, for did it not all move?

In thinking how primitive man would seek to get at the cause of what he saw we must not suppose he could reason as we do. But although he could not shape his vague thoughts into polished speech, and although he had no accumulated knowledge of the race to aid him—yet common sense stood by to help him.

He knew that he himself moved or stood still as he chose, and that only when he "willed" to do anything, was it done by himself. Something within governed all that he did. The result was he looked at nature, and interpreted it from this same standpoint. It was not still; the river moved, the clouds drifted, the leaves trembled, the earth shook; sun, moon, and stars changed their positions and appearances, and extended a mighty influence. These then, he felt must be moved, impelled, by some internal force—will, volition, such as impelled his own action.

Were not all these mightier than himself, uncontrollable by him, hence worthy of worship. Did they not bring good and evil to man, which according to his reasoning must be consciously done; and must not man, then, beseech them to bring good and avert evil? Thus began a belief in spirits dwelling in everything, in sun, tree, waterfall, flame, beast, bird, and serpent.

Now as they thus interpreted everything, they naturally personified all these objects, which resulted in many personal gods—

one to control each phenomenon; sun, moon, stars, water, trees, wind, animals, and flowers.

Here we see the analogy between the race and the child of to-day. Children personify all the objects around them, attribute to them consciousness because of their own consciousness. Moreover, they cannot, to begin with, see one cause behind many effects, therefore they attribute a separate cause to each effect. A little child, overhearing the remark that we must let God dwell in us, came to the conclusion that there were as many gods as there were individuals.

In looking back at the early race, we find the Persians worshipping the sun as the giver of all life and heat—fire-worshippers they were called. They felt the divinity, but did not understand it existing as an effect rather than a cause.

The Britons worshipped trees—why? Because the apparently mysterious life within them seemed one with a god. So to them a spirit lived in each tree, and this to them meant consciousness.

While *we* recognize the tree as a spiritual manifestation, yet we recognize for each object in nature one Divine Source, and we wish to lead the children to this insight. The Norsemen, too, were strong in the faith of the personal divinity of nature. They, living in the north, came in contact with the stronger, rougher elements of nature, hence their religion was of that strong, rugged character.

They classified nature into two parts—the friendly and the hostile powers. The dark, hostile powers they called Jotuns or giants; huge, shaggy beings of a demoniac character, they imagined them—frosts, fire, sea, tempests, etc., came under this head. Summer heat, the sun, wind, etc., were gods because they brought gifts to man. All nature they personified. The power of fire or flame, for instance, which we designate by some chemical name, was to these Norsemen, Loki, a swift and subtle demon. Frost, to them was the harmful giant, Rime, which word has lost its original meaning but is used still to signify hoar frost.

They tell anecdotes of these giants; for instance: "The monstrous Jotun, Rime, drove home his horses at night and sat combing their manes," which horses were hail clouds or fleet frost winds. The icebergs were to these Norsemen the giant Hymir's cows. Thunder was not then connected in any way with electricity; it was the powerful god Thor. Black clouds were the frowns of his brow—a fire-bolt was a hammer flung from his hand. Hoder was the god of winter; Balder the white summer god. The giant Aegir was the sea-

tempest, which word is still used in England on the Trent River; when a flood is coming the boatmen as of old, cry: "There comes the Aegir."

Very amusing stories of these gods we read in Norse mythology. "Loki, a very mischievous god, cut off Sif's tresses. (Sif was Thor's wife). Thor was angry and pursued the mischievous god to gain restitution, and after much difficulty succeeded in capturing him and making him promise to procure new tresses for Sif, which Loki proceeded to do by inducing the dwarfs in the mountains underground to forge them for him. Now this interpreted is, Loki, the intense summer heat, killed the beautiful grass and grain—(Sif's tresses). The dwarfs were minor forces of nature such as summer showers, breezes and the moist earth, which very quickly restored the earth with grass and grain.

Very interesting it is to study the primitive interpretation of nature as personal gods; but we must look for some higher insight of nature in the race. When we find the race grasping the idea of one God, who created the heavens and the earth—then we see the true relation of nature commencing to dawn upon the mind. Only commencing, for to-day this research is still going on.

Early man had communed with nature as with a god; to-day nature speaks to man, but in a different way. We more truly have the oracles of nature than did they. To us nature speaks not so much of itself as of the hand that made it; for nature is a manifestation, a revelation of the Divine, and so speaks to the heart of man and reaches his intellect.

The Creator, who is Absolute Self-activity, reveals Himself in the universe where all is process, development, from the lowest forms in plant and animal life to the highest reflection in man. The Universe is God's thought; therefore Froebel says: "From every point, from every object of nature there is a way to God." He also says: "The things of nature form a more beautiful ladder between heaven and earth than that seen by Jacob: not a one-sided ladder, leading in one direction, but an all-sided one, leading in all directions." And behind all these manifold manifestations the one Hand, as "From the heart of God proceeds a single will, a million deeds." It is not the object itself alone that thus speaks to us, but it is the living Law that lies behind it.

The knowledge of what a thing is, together with how it came to be, and why it came to be, makes it of vital importance to us, thus

revealing truths of process, of cause and effect. So Froebel says: "The study of nature should not be so much with reference to detail and the outer form of her phenomena as with reference to it as a spiritual manifestation—which Spirit is the eternal Law that rules all things."

How nature may lead to nature's God is well shown in a little book called "Picciola." The French prisoner Charney is a sceptic; shut off from all communication with the world, his views seem to strengthen. He writes upon his walls: "Chance is blind and is the sole author of Creation." In his solitary walks in the bare court-yard he spies a small plant which becomes the sole object of his affection and care. In watering and caring for it, he is led to study the process of its growth, its needs and how they are so definitely supplied by nature, which he thinks is blind and unconscious — without Intelligence behind. The little leaves which first appear act as a protection for the fresh shoots. When a storm or cold wind from the Alps comes sweeping down, these lobes close carefully over the little plant, shielding it from all harm. At night the same protecting care is manifest. Can this be chance? After a period of studiously watching his little plant, he begins to doubt it, and writes upon his wall under the previous assertion the word "perhaps." Still pursuing his interesting study of his little friend he comes to realize the truth, and finally writes: "This world is that of Truth. It is intelligent creation. It is the revelation of that infinite Law of Love that governs the universe."

Through sympathetic study of nature he is led to the point when he can see creation as the work of God and himself a part of it, thus revealing himself in his relation to God. For all forms in nature, conforming to the one eternal law, must mutually interpret one another.

Nature then not only reveals God, it is also a mirror to man of himself. This shows us the use of nature work for the leader and companion of little children. *She* must feel and understand these truths which so deeply affected the human race. She must be conscious of the influence of the great symbols of nature upon primitive man that she may better understand the symbolic utterances of the child, and realize that the whole of history is in one child, in one man, and that history is the individual life writ large. She must understand the universal principles of development that are shown in nature if she is going to be able to foster a garden of children.

The free development of nature into its ideal through communicating with its proper environment is a picture that should impress every Kindergartner, and speak to her of what she must be to the children. That just as there is spontaneous growth of the tree, just so the development of the child must be through spontaneous expression without forcing—from within out.

Still nature is more than this to man; he has also definite relations with it of which he must be conscious. He is the highest and most powerful of nature's works, therefore must be the master; but until he understands it he is controlled by it. It must become his servant to do his bidding. And again, because nature is inferior to man, and he the controller, he must "foster and protect it where beneficial, and subdue where harmful." Nature is also man's companion in virtue of what they have in common. Now a companion must be loved and cherished and understood.

The root of all insight is sympathy. The first step in mental development is interest. So the foundation of all nature study must be sympathy with and love for it. A person who does not love nature, who cares for it only in a technical way, can never see it as a reflection of God, and can never see his own life in it, can never live in proper relation to it. It is a matter for the heart and intellect combined; as some one has said: "Nature is to be studied with the eyes of the heart as well as of the microscope." The first thing then for the Kindergartener to do is to get into sympathy with nature. If she cannot do this, if she cares not for the woods, trees, birds and flowers, and if to her they do not reveal herself, there is little hope for her being a successful companion of little children. Dr. Stanley Hall says: "Oneness with nature is the glory of childhood, oneness with childhood is the glory of the teacher." If the Kindergartner is to be in sympathy with the children, she must love what they love and what is akin to them.

The little child understands very little of life around him, but with what keen interest and with what sympathy he watches it, and how he loves to be with it, because he is a child of nature and has not yet separated himself from it. This must be fostered, as it is the basis of all future insight. As did the early race impute consciousness to all around them, so as was explained, does the child to-day. Then with what greater joy does he meet the active nature which *responds* to what is within himself and thus helps to develop it. To him it is truly a companion.

But we say: "What have all those deep truths spoken of to do with the child. We surely cannot explain them to him." No! nor would we if we could. In sympathetic relation lie all these truths in germ, and they whisper themselves to the child in being his companion.

Froebel in his "Mother Play" responds to all those relations spoken of by arousing in the child sympathetic *feelings*, which, as Miss Blow says, are germinal responses to the duties and relations spoken of. So in the first nature plays we find the sympathetic relation shown, nature as companion; nor does Froebel force this upon the child; it must come in response to some interest manifested on his part. He sees children talking to plants and animals as though they understood, and he simply presents nature in such a way as to give chance for free expression of this, and also further investigation.

In the activities of plants and animals the children take the greatest interest. Therefore the starting point in nature study must be the activities, the functions—what the plants and animals do, and like, where they live and why they live there. One must beware of the temptation to make of the children prodigies of information with regard to plants and animals, for this is not the starting point. The foundation must be the finding of the soul of plant and animal. Every child loves to find a parallel between himself and plant and animal. The little three year old child will talk of baby plants, and see faces in hollyhocks and pansies, will speak of the sun going to sleep. He sees how daisies, dandelions, etc., go to sleep at night, how the tree takes care of its seed babies and how these have wings to fly away, how some plants like shady places and others love the bright sun, how others love damp soil, how they eat, drink and breathe.

By the child caring for plants and animals, and attending to their daily requirements, his sympathy and knowledge is deepened, and he more truly knows himself through this mirror of life.

Wordsworth says: "It is my faith that every flower enjoys the air it breathes."

Longfellow affirms: "Flowers teach by most persuasive reasons how akin they are to human things." So Miss Blow with great wisdom says: "In early childhood restrict yourself to fostering the love of plants and animals, and teach only the common names quite naturally, as you would give the name of a person. Give the joy of seeking them in their native haunts and the deeper joy of cultivating them in their own little gardens."

Longfellow, in Hiawatha, shows how the Indians were child-like in their companionship with nature:

> "Then the little Hiawatha
> Learned of every bird its language,
> Learned their names and all their secrets,
> How they built their nests in Summer,
> Where they hid themselves in Winter,
> Talked with them whene'er he met them,
> Called them "Hiawatha's Chickens."

And this is just what the child tries to do, and we must help him. For this communion with nature is quite common to children, and if encouraged and developed into conscious insight of relationship it would do away with much of the cruelty to animals. A friend of mine has a little boy who companions with nature so sympathetically that numbers of the wild birds show no fear of him, and in fact gather around him in response to a cooing sound he makes. This is the most marked illustration of mutual attraction that has come to me personally.

That love and kindness to animals will gain its response in devotion, we see illustrated every day among dogs and horses. Now we know that what the child sees and loves, *that* he imitates, in order that he may the better understand it. This instinct of the child we meet by allowing him to play animal and bird games. Why does every child love to play he is a squirrel and chase other squirrels? There are other activity games, such as dancing, running and tag games, but none of them take the place of the squirrel. Is it not that the life of the bright little animal, with its playful ways, so appeals to him that unconsciously he wants to be it, for the time, and in thus *being it*, understands both it and himself better. In being himself a caterpillar, cocoon, and butterfly in his play, he is unconsciously imbibing spiritual truths symbolized by it.

In the Birds' Nest game Froebel shows us how mother love and care are revealed. As a little boy or girl finds a bird's nest and eagerly watches the mother and father bird bringing food to the nest, does not the analogy of that little family life to his own awaken within him? It is a picture of himself by which he better knows and appreciates his own father's and mother's care. Then as he wants to imitate it in playing bird's nest, does not the fact of being the bird and caring for the little ones, awaken that love within him which is the foundation of all moral and spiritual life?

Now just because the child loves all the active things around him, because they appeal to the life within him, he wishes to possess them, to possess in them what has so attracted him—the *activity*, the *freedom*. Many boys catch birds, and butterflies, and cage wild animals. Is it not because the life they lead so attracts them, they feel that by possessing the animals they may in some measure possess the attributes that so keenly attracted them. They do not realize any cruelty in it. Now, because this has its foundation in good, are we to let it continue and finally result in callousness toward nature, which will bring in time conscious cruelty?

Can this not be avoided by leading this instinct for possession in the right channel? Froebel responds to this instinct with the little game of Fishes—which game of fishing is perhaps the most fascinating for all boys. They love to see the fish darting about in the water, and try to catch them; but when caught there is disappointment because the activity, which had in reality been the attraction, *is gone*. This gives the child a hint that true possession is something more than physical possession. The fish may be his to watch and care for in their own home, for only in their own environment do they show this attractiveness. So in our Kindergartens we have fish that the children may watch and feed.

Quite as clearly does inanimate nature speak to the child of Life truths—of the Divine—as it did to the early race. What child is there who is not attracted by *light* in sun, moon and stars. The attraction of the heavenly bodies for children serves as a point of departure for the development of that spiritual attraction of which it is but the vanishing symbol, and opens a path over which we may guide him toward some inner apprehension of the being of the Creator. Those nations who developed their interest and awe for the heavenly bodies into a part of their religion, who held light as their ideal, have been, of all heathen nations, the most moral and upright. The Persians were a moral, truthful people. This it seems to me, shows the influence of unconscious symbols.

Light symbolizes Truth and Purity. So in holding light as their ideal they must of necessity imbibe and develop within them the characteristics of that ideal; just then for this reason should we develop in the child a love for light, that he may imbibe its characteristics and grow like the light so pure, so bright. And just as these heavenly bodies spoke to the Persians of the Divine, so they speak to the child.

Dr. Hall quotes instances of children praying to the moon; and

I think none of us older ones can gaze into the heavens at night without feeling the Divine Presence, and ourselves drawn into communion with God. For all nature "utters forth a glorious voice

> Forever singing as they shine
> The Hand that made us is Divine."

Nature then, occupying its proper place in the life of the child, reveals to him Life, Love, Light—which are symbols of the Divine.

THE KINDERGARTEN—ITS PLACE IN A CHILD'S EDUCATION.

MISS V. AYLESWORTH, CHATHAM, ONT.

(Directress, Kindergarten.)

All the possibilities of ripened manhood have their existence in the new-born child, just as all that wonderful fulfilment rejoiced in by the full-grown oak has its complete prophetic utterance in the tiny acorn.

> "My heart leaps up when I behold
> A rainbow in the sky:
> So was it when my life began;
> So it is now I am a man;
> So be it when I shall grow old,
> Or let me die!
> The child is father of the man;"

This unity of human life explains its continuous stages of infancy, childhood, youth, and manhood as one organic process of development, and the object of education is to render actual, in so far as possible, this exhaustless potentiality. Therefore educators should strive to place about the human plant the most favourable conditions of sunlight, moisture and earth, so to speak, which will make for its fullest and most harmonious unfolding. This desirable end cannot be attained unless each stage in the process is duly recognized, and a befitting response made to the needs manifested.

During the first four years of a child's life his education rests most naturally within the domestic circle. Step by step he conquers his physical organism by learning to adapt its different parts to their proper uses. In the first year he learns to hold up his head, to clutch things with his thumb in contraposition to his fingers, and to use his senses in determining the individuality of objects. Locomotion he must also make his own; and creeping, which serves his purposes fairly well in the first year, gives place to walking in the second. During the third and fourth years imitation and its most important fruit, the acquisition of language, become powerful agencies in extending the child's knowledge of the external world. Thus do his physical and mental powers gradually unfold. Nor is spiritual growth according to the "Gospel of the Little Child" by any means wanting in this tender, unconscious period. "Can you tell, oh Mother," writes Froebel, "when the spiritual development of your child begins? Can you trace the boundary-line which separates the conscious from the unconscious soul? In God's world, just because it is God's world, the law of all things is continuity,—there are and can be no abrupt beginnings,—no rude transitions, no to-day which is not based upon yesterday. The distant stars were shining long before their rays reached our earth; the seed germinates in darkness and is growing long before we can see its growth; so in the depths of the infant soul a process goes on which is hidden from our ken, yet upon which hangs more than we can dream of good or evil, happiness or misery."

The most characteristic manifestation of the four-year-old is play. What water is to the swimming fish and air to the flying bird, play is to the young child. It is the element in and through which his being finds its highest and most spontaneous expression. There are two main impulses in childish play which continually assert themselves, namely, a desire to attack the material world, and a desire to imitate surrounding activities. To the student of childhood in each of these tendencies is revealed an unconscious attempt to objectify the inner, and investigate the outer life. When we realize this we can readily see that play is an all important factor at this early stage in the process of development. Another very marked characteristic of the child is a growing desire to make his play social through participating in it with others of his own age. The radius of the family circle he would fain extend sufficiently to enhance his play by sweet companionship and cheerful co-operation.

And now, oh educator, what are you going to do with this child? He's a little engine and cannot pull very much, but lo, the future may find whole continents travelling in his train. Is it wisdom to leave a being at this tenderly formative period to the uncertainty and even risk of unguided and too often misguided activity? The far-reaching danger in such a course was clearly understood by Friederich Froebel, whose long years of faithful study yielded as their choicest fruit the Kindergarten. Here an hospitable door is thrown widely open to children of every rank and station, who lose home only the more truly to find it, for the time being, in the joyful fellowship of congenial playmates. The kindergarten responds to the capacity for "endless imitation" by a wise selection of songs and games technically called "pattern experiences," which are presented in a logically related sequence. It also offers a system of playthings called "gifts" and "occupations" in response to the craving to attack the material world. This series of objects is so arranged that under guidance in play with them the child's self-activity is developed, and at the same time his knowledge of form, number, colour, direction, proportion, etc., is inevitably increased. Very many people express grave doubts upon the matter of the child's learning anything in the kindergarten. An old gentleman once said: "Tut! tut! Child *learn* anything and be so happy?" evidently thinking that learning meant undergoing intense suffering.

Parallel with the development of the child's mind the kindergarten material advances from the indefinite to the definite, from the external to the internal, from the simple to the complex. A deeper scrutiny will reveal the advantages of such an organized series of playthings over the somewhat heterogeneous mass which indulgent and psychologically ignorant friends heap upon the child. When he enters the kindergarten his play is a continual make-believe; a tireless letting of one thing stand for another by reason of some slight external analogy between them. One of the children at McKeough Kindergarten upon his first morning revealed the boy-like bent of his mind by rolling up the edges of a piece of folding paper and exclaiming "See! look! Here's a pie!" "Is it a turnover, Guy?" "Yes, a turnover." Similarly a stick may stand for a horse, a plow, an axe or a gun. The finished and all too perfect toy leaves no sweep for childish imagination and therefore fails to satisfy. This is the simple indefinite form in which mental activity stamps itself upon material in its first crude utterances. Accordingly the first play-

things which Froebel chooses are simple type forms which are well calculated to provoke symbolism and offer a general basis for the classification of the world of externality. Gradually, however, from this form of mental activity a higher one is evolved, in which the desire to investigate becomes the controlling influence. Under its impelling power the toy, accompanied too often by many more *valuable* things must go *down* even to the uttermost depths of destruction. Carlyle says: "In all the sports of children, even in their wanton breakages and defacements you shall discern a creative instinct." By way of resisting this proverbial destructiveness, and at the same time fostering creative activity, the kindergarten places before the child divided cubes, the divisions of which, with the growing power of his mind, increase in variety and complexity. Gradually under wise guidance in the use of these playthings, destructive are converted into constructive tendencies, for analysis finds its educational coefficient in synthesis, and impression in expression. In the cube the child soon begins to recognize ideal possibilities, and eagerly falls upon it to discover its manifold adaptations, transformations, and combinations. From the divided object in which the mutual relationship between parts and whole is constantly associated, the child advances to the creation of numberless and varied wholes from independent elements. For in proportion to the increase in creative power the kindergarten material decreases in suggestiveness, thereby throwing the mind more and more upon its internal resources. The representations with this material have lost thickness, and bear directly upon surface or the mere outline thereof. While building with the divided cube the child struggled to reproduce in concrete form his mental image of an object, but now the effort is to make pictures of that object. Thus has the development of the child, like that of the race, proceeded from the symbol to the fact and from the fact to the picture. The journey from the concrete to the abstract is completed in the Primary room, where he advances from the picture to the sign by learning to read and write and record the results of arithmetic. In the kindergarten the plays with these "gifts" as they are called, are supplemented by pleasant diversions with a variety of occupations, drawing, colouring, sewing, weaving, folding, cutting, peas-work and modelling. Each of these occupations copes with the child's developing powers by offering greater and greater possibilities of creation, and grants him a permanent record of impressions gained from time to time in the experiences with the gifts.

Dr. Harris says: "The emancipation of mind takes place through its ascent in formative power," and the child in his use of the kindergarten material is a convincing evidence of this philosophical truth.

Running parallel with this "ascent in formative power" is the development of aesthetic culture. The love of the truly beautiful can only be attained by climbing through ascending stages of art, and here as elsewhere the individual repeats the history of the race. Educators are beginning to "realize that the rounds on the ladder of aesthetic development are permanent, but that they may be climbed more or less readily; and that our wisdom consists in seeing where the child stands, and then pointing him, not to the distant height to which he must mount, but to the near next step which he must take and perhaps already begins to feel that he would like to take." In the kindergarten this climbing is begun and continued by means of exercises with the objects of sense in comparing, discriminating, selecting, producing and creating. Aesthetic education in colour is begun with the balls of the First Gift which are of the colours of the rainbow. In the symbolic plays with this gift the child classifies objects of like colour, the yellow ball standing for a canary, a flower, or a butterfly; and comes in time to recognize readily the six standard colours. He then advances to the discrimination of their tints and shades as he uses them in the sewing, weaving, and cutting. A freedom is enjoyed by the child in his choice of colour combinations, but not the unrestricted freedom of the savage which would only mean arrested development in the appreciation of colour. Several good and strictly permissible combinations, embracing all the different colours are placed before him, and from among these he has perfect freedom of choice. Meanwhile by means of the water colours the production of pictures of natural objects gives rise to the creation of designs thrown out by colour. Form is also used to help the child in his ladder-climbing. His first artistic expressions through it, bead-stringing and all other exercises partaking of regularity, show his delight in repetition. His next step is to make a centre and arrange material about it so as to keep it symmetrical. Here again he earns freedom through conformity to the law of balance. These beauty-forms, as they are called, assume at first a decidedly crude marking off of sides and corners, but in the course of time, by their union of very many differences, they give a faint suggestion of harmony.

An attempt is also made in the kindergarten to train the

auditory sense by cultivating musical taste. The delight of very young children in monotonous repetition of sound is well known. Out of this grows a fondness for the very simplest airs, the sing-song strains of the so-called popular music. A careful selection of the best musical compositions of kindergarten song books, in the rendition of which the child associates the melody with appropriate word and gesture, gradually attunes the ear and emotion to a purer, higher class of music.

As intimated above, the use of songs or games is the "special Froebel device" for responding to the child's desire to imitate. "What the child imitates he is trying to understand," and it is therefore very important not only that he should be protected from the imitation of harmful activities, but that he should be directed to the imitation of such as shall prove beneficial. Accordingly only the typical aspects of life are portrayed, and through these the child is given experiences relating to the family, to nature, to trade, to patriotism, and to the Church. In the songs picturing family life, whether it be "Good Mother Hen," "The Birds in the Nest," or the little song describing the human family, the aim is to increase the child's love for his home, and foreshadow the duties arising out of parental, filial, and fraternal relationships. Love best reveals itself in action; and the kindergarten sets apart a day for a flower festival, at which the child expresses his gratitude for a mother's tender care by making her a basket, filling it with flowers and singing as he gives it to her,

"Weave a little basket,
Fill it up with posies;
Roses from the garden
Blossoms from the wood.
With our fondest wishes,
With our songs and kisses,
Bring them to our parents
Dear and kind and good."

The point of departure for the nature songs and games lies in the child's constant and friendly intercourse with the bright sunshine the glistening snow, the silver moon, the changing trees, the singing birds, the flowers, and butterflies. "Oneness with Nature is the glory of childhood." The kindergarten aims to quicken this interest in and sympathy for "the life that sleeps in the plant and dreams in the animal," and thereby restrain much of the reckless destruction

of the former and the cruel torturing of the latter. In connection with the most ideal kindergartens there are plants and pets the actual care of which is intrusted to the children themselves. In this way the best possible foundation is laid for all that is implied in the term Nature Study. Moreover from germs of love, nurture, and reverence planted in the childish imagination and nourished through the following years springs that transcendental view of nature enjoyed by the poet.

> "For I have learned
> To look on Nature, not as in the hour
> Of thoughtless youth; but hearing oftentimes
> The still, sad music of humanity . . . .
> And I have felt
> A presence that disturbs me with the joy
> Of elevated thoughts; a sense sublime
> Of something far more deeply interfused,
> Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,
> And the round ocean, and the living air,
> And the blue sky, and in the mind of man:
> A motion and a spirit, that impels
> All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
> And rolls through all things."

The third class of songs are those that relate to trade or labour. In these plays the child is led from the enjoyment of his food and shelter to an interest in the chain of activities which were at work in the production of even the simplest of these. For instance the loaf of bread suggests the baker, the miller, the farmer, the forces of nature, and last and first in the chain the Omnipotent Power in and through all things whatsoever. The songs of The Baker, The Farmer, The Carpenter, The Miner, and The Blacksmith present to the child a picture of industrial life, of a divided field of labour and of his dependence upon these labourers. There are two natural outcomes of these pictures; the child is thankful for this universal service, and is stirred with some sense of his responsibility, of his share in the world's activity.

Then there are the patriotic songs. In the hearts of young children the patriotic feeling is most easily stirred by representing soldiers. Marching with flags and drum wins a perceptible response from the dullest countenance, and right heartily every voice is lifted in a soldier song.

"A rub-a-dub-dub! A rub-a-dub-dub!
We're soldiers brave and true,
The band shall play and the flags shall wave,
'Tis the red, the white, the blue.
A rub-a-dub-dub! A rub-a-dub-dub!
We're marching as we sing,
The bugles blow and the banners wave,
And our voices ring."

Patriotic songs are taught at seasonable times of the year, and in these also the children show a lively interest.

The kindergarten method of developing *religious* ideals is that of suggesting the child's relationship to God by means of those songs which primarily deal with his relationship to nature and humanity. The Bird's Nest symbolizes mother-love, and this points upward to God Whose whole life is a nurture of feeble souls into the strength and beauty of His Divine image. "The Wind Song ascends from the child's consciousness of an unseen causal power within himself, to an unseen cause of visible effects in Nature, to the great Cause of all causes Whose name could not be read for the glory of His countenance." The light songs, the moon, and stars, etc., pave the way in the childish heart for the Light of the world, of which the heavenly bodies are but the vanishing symbol. The unimpeded freedom of the fish in their pure native element is a prophecy of the freedom vouchsafed "a world immanent in God, the Divine element in which all souls are free eternally." Froebel says: "From every point, from every object of Nature there is a way to God."

Upon summing up the benefits derivable from a course in the kindergarten it will be found that it rightly claims a very important place in a child's education. It serves as a mediator between family and school, and avoids the too abrupt transition from the nurture of the one to the discipline of the other. Step by step it leads the child from a desire to play with things he himself likes best to a desire to perform the allotted task of the Primary room. The various exercises in the kindergarten result in the development of physical grace and dexterity, in the formation of habits of cleanliness, neatness, and accuracy, and in the increasing of the powers of observation, classification, and concentration. Dr. Harris says: "Thus he learns through play to recognize the potency of those "lords of life" (as Emerson calls them) that weave the tissue of human experience—

volition, making and unmaking, obstinacy of material, the magic of contrivance, the lordly might of perseverance that can reinforce the moment by the hours, (and time by eternity)." The kindergarten proves itself an excellent basis for the more modern public school system which in its completeness embraces all that was good in the old, together with Manual Training, Domestic Science, and Nature Study. In other words it lays a broad, deep foundation for an immense structure and heaven-reaching superstructure.

In Memoriam

JOHN A. MacCABE, M.A., LL.D.

Dr. MacCabe was born in the County of Cavan, Ireland, January 9, 1842. He was educated in the Irish National Schools, in the Dublin Normal School, where he took the two courses, general and special, and in the Roman Catholic University of Dublin. He was English and Mathematical Master in the diocesan academies of Belfast, Kilmore and Killarney, which positions he filled in the order named. Coming to Nova Scotia in 1869, he was appointed Mathematical Master in the Provincial Normal School at Truro; but at his own request was soon transferred to the English mastership of that institution. In 1875, on the opening of a second Normal School in Ontario, at Ottawa, he was appointed Principal. He managed this institution with marked ability till his death on November 30, 1902.

In 1877 he received the degree of M.A. from the University of Ottawa, and that of LL.D. in 1889.

He was elected President of the Dominion Educational Association at its meeting in Halifax in 1898.

He was twice married; in 1869 to Kate Anna, only daughter of James Kelly, County Clare, Ireland, and in 1902, to Almira, daughter of R. A. Sims, Ottawa.

He was the author of a work on English Grammar, one on Language Lessons, another on Methods of Teaching Language and Grammar, and a hand-book of Methods for Teaching Phonic Reading. He prepared Parts I. and II. of the Canadian Catholic Reader and the companion to the same books; also a History of England.

MEMBERSHIP

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Cameron, Miss Agnes Deans, Victoria.
Jones, H. H., Victoria.
Knowlton, G. H., Nanaimo.
Minchin, Laurence J., Vancouver.
Moore, Samuel, Salt Spring Island.

MANITOBA.

Acheson, Helen, 558 Jessie Ave., Winnipeg.
Alpenny, Edith, Manitou.
Archibald, Miss Sadie, Maravilla.
Argue, Alma, 125 Cauchon St., Winnipeg.
Argue, E., Winnipeg.
Armitage, Bessie, Manitou.
Armitage, Kate, Manitou.
Asseltine, Miss, Snowflake.
Balfour, F. W., Pilot Mound.
Bannerman, Agnes, Portage la Prairie.
Barbour, Clara A., 216 Pembina Ave., Winnipeg.
Barbour, Miss M. G., 216 Pembina Ave. Winnipeg.
Barnwell, Mabel, 187 Selkirk St., Winnipeg.
Bell, F. C., Merchant's Bank Block, Winnipeg.
Berry, Lillian, Brandon.
Berryhill, Lizzie, 290 Isabel St., Winnipeg.
Best, Inspector E. E., Winnipeg.
Blakie, Jennie M., Shoal Lake.
Borthwick, Bessie, Morden.
Brandon, Lizzie, Keyes.
Brett, N., Dugald.
Brigham, Florence, Dugald.
Brittain, Jennie, Miami.
Brown, Edith, 123 Osborne St., Winnipeg.
Brown, Wyley E., 470 Young St., Winnipeg.
Brown, Violet, 647 Broadway, Winnipeg.
Burgess, Miss E., Manitou.
Burns, Lizzie, Neepawa.
Cameron, Miss K. W., Stonewall.
Cameron, Mary, Winnipeg.
Campbell, Annie, Dauphin.
Campbell, Edna, Louise Bridge P.O.
Campbell, Gertrude, Pleasant Home.
Campbell, Lizzie, Teulon.
Carr, Laura, Portage la Prairie.
Chapman, Miss L. R., Albert St., Winnipeg.
Christie, Miss M., 209 Hargrave St., Winnipeg.
Church, Nettie, Niverville.
Clark, D. P., Winnipeg.
Cleland, Lucy, Rapid City.
Cleland, Sadie, Minto.
Collins, Violet, Gladstone.
Collins, Zella M., Miami.
Connell, Eva G., 175 Alfred St., Winnipeg.
Connor, Bessie, Morden.
Coulter, Miss I., Free Kindergarten, Winnipeg.
Davidson, Agnes, Arrow River.
Davidson, Mina, Arrow River.
Davidson, Jennie, Somerset.
Denike, W. N., Carman.
Dickie, Miss J., Winnipeg.
Dickson, A., Shoal Lake.
Doerr, J. E., 503 Rosser Ave., Winnipeg.
Dunn, Annie H., Manitou.
Dunn, J. H., Minto.
Dunn, Eva, Wapaka.
Egan, Charlotte, Prairie Grove.
Fallis, A. B., Dauphin.
Ferguson, Lottie, Sydney.
Fidler, Wilfrid L., Cold Springs.
Findlay, W. N., Brandon.
Fingland, Edith, William Ave., Winnipeg.
Finn, T., Morden.
Fletcher, R., Department of Education, Winnipeg.
Fraser, Evelyn, Pilot Mound.

Fraser, Gertrude, Pilot Mound.
French, Ellen, Carman.
Friesen, J. M., Altona.
Forrest, Agnes I., 577 Elgin Ave., Winnipeg.
Foster, Bertha, Silver Plains.
Gamey, O., Boissevain.
Garrett, E. A., Coll. Inst., Winnipeg,
Gillespie, Ethel M., 175 Garry St., Winnipeg.
Glenn, Vera, 429 William Street, Winnipeg.
Gordon, J. W., Souris.
Gorham, W., Bird's Hill.
Goulet, Inspector Roger, St. Boniface.
Gray, Gertrude, 480 William St., Winnipeg.
Gray, Mabel, Winnipeg.
Greenway, Miss F. M., Brandon.
Grey, Minnie, Oswold.
Grover, Annie, Eden.
Guilmette, Miss H., 129 Carlton St., Winnipeg.
Hales, B. J., Hartney.
Halliday, Ina., Russell.
Hamilton, E., Carberry.
Hamilton, Sarah, Lyonshall.
Hamilton, W. O., Beausejour.
Harris, P. D., Selkirk.
Harrison, Belle, Winnipeg.
Hartley, D. J., Baldur,
Hartley, W. J., Stonewall.
Hawkle, Mabel, Myrtle.
Hearn, A. E., Aberdeen School, Winnipeg.
Henderson, Katie B., Morris.
Hemsworth, E. A., Cypress River.
Hicks, Miss B., Windygates.
Hodgson, R. L., Brandon.
Holden, Miss A., Boissevain.
Hooper, A. W., Dauphin.
Hopwood, Lillie, Ninga.
Horn, Miss R., 336 Alfred Street, Winnipeg.
Houston, Alice, 558 Alexander St., Winnipeg.
Houston, James, 558 Alexander St., Winnipeg.
Howard, Daisy, 270 Smith Street, Winnipeg.
Huckle, Edith, 71 Leusted Ave., Winnipeg.
Hurd, Edith, Dominion City.
Irvine, Miss B., Pilot Mound.
Irvine, Howard L., Hartney.
Irvine, Minnie, Pilot Mound.
Irwin, Margaret, St. Boniface.
Johnston, Miss, Coll. Inst., Winnipeg.
Keith, Georgina, 429 William St., Winnipeg.
Kennedy, Miss L. L., Winnipeg.
Kirkwood, Miss M., 326 Hargrave St. Winnipeg.
Lang, Inspector S. E., Virden.
Lawrence, Helen, 354 Donald St., Winnipeg.
Lee, Helen, Arden.
Logan, Frances, Lauder.
Lothrop, Mrs., 659 Henry St., Winnipeg.
Lynch, Helen, Westbourne.
Marshall, E. K., Sydney.
Marten, Edith, Roland.
Matthews, John E., 671 Maryland St., Winnipeg.
Middleton, Mildred, Clear Springs.
Mitchell, Miss C., East Selkirk.
Monteith, Donald M., 48 Lydia St., Winnipeg.
Monteith, Maggie E., 48 Lydia St., Winnipeg.
Montgomery, Jennie, Stonewall.
Montgomery, M., Winnipeg.
Morrison, A., 66 Charlotte St., Winnipeg.
Morrison, J. B., Alexander.
Mullin, M. L., Cypress River.
Murdoch, Nettie, Pilot Mound.
Munroe, Agnes, Portage La Prairie.
Munroe, Annie, St. John's, Winnipeg.
MacGregor, Miss E., Birtle.
MacGregor, Jeannette, Baldur.
MacGregor, Mollie, 427 Graham St., Winnipeg.
MacLean, Elsie, 548 William St., Winnipeg.
MacLean, Margaret, Norwood Grove.
McAlpin, J. C., Killarney.
McArthur, A., Gladstone School, Winnipeg.
McBeth, Maggie, Kildonan.
McDonald, Blanche, Oak Lake.
McDonald, Ida, Oak Lake.
McDougall, Miss S., St. Boniface.
McDougall, Miss B., St. Boniface.

McFarlane, Ethel, Clear Springs.
McGill, Miss, Neepawa.
McGregor, Isabel, Brandon.
McIntyre, A., Normal School, Winnipeg.
McIntyre, W. A., Normal School, Winnipeg.
McKee, Prof. S. J., Brandon.
McKenny, Margaret, Rossburn.
McKinnon, Isabel, Portage la Prairie.
McKinnon, Mary E., Portage la Prairie.
McKnight, Lela, 1 McMillan St., Winnipeg.
McLaren, Nellie V., Clearwater.
McLean, A. L., McGregor.
McNab, J. W., Treherne.
McNaughton, David H., Fairfax.
McTavish, Madge, Swan Lake.
Newcombe, C., Virden.
Newton, S. S., Wesley Coll., Winnipeg.
Nicholson, Mary, Lintrathen.
O'Donnell, Miss E., 309 Edmonton St., Winnipeg.
Oliver, Edna, Portage la Prairie.
Oliver, Mary, Portage la Prairie.
Ormond, Frances L., Portage la Prairie.
Ozard, Mary, 228 Selkirk St., Winnipeg.
Palmer, Hilda, McGregor.
Palmer, Winifred, McGregor.
Parent, Miss L., Letellier.
Parker, Mary L., Tantallon.
Patrick, Misses (2), Winnipeg.
Peach, Julia, Cypress River.
Philip, Mary, 347 Ross Ave., Winnipeg.
Platt, Marion, Sydney.
Plewes, James, Morris.
Polson, Miss E., Winnipeg.
Polson, Miss F., Winnipeg.
Ptolemy, Jessie, Furby St., Winnipeg.
Pye, W. E., 50 Gertie St., Winnipeg.
Ramsha, Annie, Wawanesa.
Robb, Maggie, Melita.
Ross, Miss J. W., Winnipeg.
Sandercock, W. C., Napinka.
Scambler, Elizabeth A., Dugald.
Schofield, F. H., Coll. Inst., Winnipeg.
Shanks, Retta, Morden.
Shantz, Edith, 535 Elgin Ave., Winnipeg.
Shaw, E. A., Brandon.
Shore, Miss G., Coll. Dept., Winnipeg.
Siassa, Marius, Oak Lake.
Sibbald, Mary, 416 Sherbrooke St., Winnipeg.
Sisler, W. J., Wesley Coll., Winnipeg.
Smith, Effie, Portage la Prairie.
Smith, Mabel, Miami.
Softley, J. W., 187 Garry St., Winnipeg.
Speers, Ada B., Boissevain.
Staples, Lila, Treherne.
Stephens, Miss, Belmont.
Stephenson, A., Cold Springs.
Stevenson, Lizzie, Nelson.
Stewart, Alice, Morris.
Stewart, Barbara, Coll. Inst., Winnipeg.
Stewart, C. C., Emerson.
Stewart, Prof., Wesley Coll., Winnipeg.
Stirling, J., 482 Bannatyrn, Winnipeg.
Storey, Herbert, Logoch.
Stroud, Tilly, 297 Spence St., Winnipeg.
Sutherland, Miss E. A., 209 Hargrave St., Winnipeg.
Sutherland, Mattie, Crandall.
Symes, Mary, 301 Edmonton St., Winnipeg.
Taylor, B., Headingly.
Taylor, Jessie, Headingly.
Telfer, Mary B., Portage la Prairie.
Tingley, George R., Austin.
Treen, L. M., Boissevain.
Truthwaite, J., Norquay.
Turner, Janet, Union Point.
Turner, Mary C., Union Point.
Wallis, J. B., 346 Spence Ave., Winnipeg.
Walker, Mina, Crystal City.
Walton, Maggie, 642 Young St., Winnipeg.
Waters, W. J., 117 Norquay, Ft. Rouge, Winnipeg.
Watson, H. H., Wawanesa.
Way, Asenath, 242 Bell St., Winnipeg.
West, Miss Orpah, St. Jean Baptist.
White, A., Portage la Prairie.
Wickware, D., Birtle.
Wilkie, James, Miami.
Wilson, F. C., Killarney.
Wright, D., Deloraine.
Wood, Mary, Hamiota.
Young, A., 467 Sargent Ave., Winnipeg.
Young, A. L., Winnipeg.
Young, G., Portage la Prairie.
Yuill, D. Will., Gladstone.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Lynn, Joseph V., Fredericton, N.B.

NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES.

Allen, R. Will., Ellisboro.
Armstrong, E. Ruby, Percy.
Ball, Inspector A. H., Yorkton.
Boyce, Inspector J. F., Red Deer.
Bryan, Inspector G. J., Calgary.
Bull, Mary E. Pincher Creek.
Calder, J. A., Deputy Commissioner of Education, Regina.
Clark, Frances A., Regina.
Cole, Mina, Red Deer.
Coutts, Rachel, Calgary.
Curry, Blanche, Stoney Beach.
Drew Mabel, Lloydminster.
Drummond, Daisy E., Moose Jaw.
Dunning, J. T., Moosomin.
Fraser, W., Hill Farm.
Hirtle, S. Amanda, Balgonie.
Hewgill, Inspector J., Moosomin.
Hutcherson, Inspector E. B., Prince Albert.
Lennox, H., Fort Qu'Appelle.
Liggett, Bessie W., Indian Head.
McCaig, James, Lethbridge.
McColl, D. P., Regina.
McDonald, May, Moosomin.
McEwen, A. M., Longlaketon.
McKellar, Mary, Hillburn.
McRae, Miss H. J., Winlaw.
Nivins, Inspector Charles, Oxbow
Pennington, M. H., Olds.
Perrett, Inspector I. E., Regina.
Railton, Miss, Sintaluta.
Rankin, Miss E. E., Regina.
Rheame, Miss V. N., Qu'Appelle.
Rogers, Stephen H., Midall.
Ronsin, Gertrude, Moose Jaw.
Shipley, J. W., Calgary.
Sinclair, Miss B., Sheho.
Stevens, Annie, Yorkton.
Thompson, Violet M., Moose Jaw.
Yemen, Miss J. F., South Qu'Appelle.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Clark, Jennie, Kinsman's Corners, King's Co.
Lay, E. J., Amherst.
Lay, Lucy, Amherst.
Lay, Jean, Amherst.
Layton, Mary, Truro.

ONTARIO.

Aylesworth, Miss V., Chatham.
Barnes, Inspector C. A., Petrolea.
Berry, J. H., Hastings.
Beswick, Mrs. Mabel, Galetta.
Beswick, W., Galetta.
Burwash, Rev. N., Toronto.
Burwash, Mrs., Toronto.
Church, George, Ottawa.
Coleman, A. P., Toronto University, Toronto.
Craig, Wm., 31 St. Joseph St., Toronto.
Currie, Mary E., Rockwood.
Curtis, Miss S. J., Newcastle.
Davidson, H., Newcastle.
Davidson, Mrs., Newcastle.
Deadman, May, Brussels,
Dumble, D. W., Peterborough.
Farquaharson, Madge, Chatham.
Farquaharson, Mia., Chatham.
Fee, Henrietta, St. Catharines..
Fernie, James, Peterborough.
Fitzpatrick, Rev. A., Knox College, Toronto.
Forbes, John, Galetta.
Forbes, Mrs., Galetta.
Hardie, W., Perth.
Hassard, Mrs. R. M., 193 Gerrard St. E., Toronto.
Hay, A., Barrie.
Hill, Edith, Chatham,
Houston, Wm., M.A., Toronto.
Howard, Miss E., Toronto.
Howes, R. G., Muncey.
McKee, Rev. Thomas, I.P.S., Barrie.
McKee, Mrs., Barrie.
McKenty, Mary, Cornwall.

McKinley, Mary M., Keewatin.
Millar, John, Deputy Minister of Education, Toronto.
Miller, Minnie J., Stratford.
Mitchell, Miss R. J., Whitby.
Mowbray, Wm., Upper Canada College, Toronto.
Moyer, E. N., 12 Louisa St., Toronto.
Murray, Myra, Million, Scotch Block, Ont.
McLean, Miss Fernie, 614 Spadina Ave., Toronto.
McNaughton, A., Cornwall.
McNaughton, Mrs., Cornwall.
Nicholls, Mrs. K. C., 614 Spadina Ave., Toronto.
Pfinmer, Mrs. S. J., Stratford.
Purves, Miss A. C., Brantford.
Robertson, Miss E. M., Kincardine.
Scott, William, Normal School, Toronto.
Sinclair, D. N., Sarnia.
Sinclair, Mrs. D. N., Sarnia.
Smith, Mrs. Hubner, Thorold.
Spence, W. D., St. Mary's.
Spence, Mrs., St. Mary's.
Steinberger, F. G., Toronto.
Steinberger, Mrs., Toronto.
Stewart, Mason, Homer.
Stunden, Minnie, Gananoque.
Squair, Prof. John, Toronto University.
Thompson, R. A., Collegiate Institute, Hamilton.
Turner, Ella, Chatham.
Waldron, Lottie, Picton.
Wilson, W. A., Rat Portage.
Young, A. H., Trinity University, Toronto.

QUEBEC.

Campbell, E. M., McGill Model School, Montreal.
Harper, J. M., Department of Education, Quebec.
Metcalfe, Miss M., Montreal.
Peebles, Mary I., McGill Model School, Montreal.
Tighe, Miss M., Quebec. (Address General Delivery, Winnipeg.)

ENGLAND.

Kerly, Miss, 22 Avenue Road, Highgate London, Eng.
Spalding, Miss, Stockwell Training College, London, Eng.

UNITED STATES.

Locke, Prof. G. H., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

INTERIM FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS.

Jan. 23,	1903.	Manitoba Government grant for 1902	$100 00
Dec. 3,	"	" " " " 1903	100 00
Dec. 26,	"	Balance from preceding treasurer	134 22
May 25,	1904.	Manitoba Government grant for 1904	200 00
July 27,	"	Nova Scotia Government Grant	200 00
" "	"	New Brunswick Government grant	150 00
" 29	"	British Columbia Government grant	100 00
" "	"	Membership fees	354 00
Oct. 14	"	Ontario Government grant	300 00
" 15	"	N. W. Territories' Government grant	200 00
			$1,838 22

EXPENSES.

Accounts of 1901	$6 25
Rent of Typewriter for Secretary	5 85
Telegrams, postage, etc	36 88
Discounts, express orders, etc	1 55
Freight	2 05
Advertising in sundry periodicals	70 75
Printing programmes, etc	80 85
Work in mounting and caring for school exhibits	74 80
Music for public meetings	58 00
Rent of church for public meetings	16 00
Clerical assistance for secretary	18 00
Allowance to Secretary	300 00
	$670 98
Credit balance in Bank of Ottawa	1,167 24
	$1,838 22

From this credit balance is to be deducted say $750, the probable cost of printing, binding and distributing the volume of Proceedings and Addresses 1904—now on the press.

F. H. SCHOFIELD,

Treasurer, D.E.A.

L
13
C35
1904

Canadian Education Association
Proceedings of the
convention

PLEASE DO NOT REMOVE
CARDS OR SLIPS FROM THIS POCKET

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO LIBRARY